The Good Shepherd: The Impact of Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour on Workplace Ostracism

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ABSTRACT

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This thesis outlines the emergence of the construct of relational leadership interventionary behaviour, defined as a leader's ability to foster an inclusive workgroup climate and enact effective third-party interpersonal interventions through displays of social awareness, proactivity and positive intentions. Across five studies and using both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, three emergent dimensions were confirmed and efforts were taken to create a measure of the construct. Based on the results obtained from 40 in-depth interviews and 739 survey respondents, the relational leadership interventionary behaviour scale (RELIB) possessed convergent and discriminant validity, and criterion-related validity was demonstrated through the scale's relation with workplace ostracism, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour, safety climate, well-being and task performance. Additionally, evidence supported the scale's test-retest validity and predictive validity over and above leader-member exchange and perceived leader emotional intelligence. Overall, the measure was found to be both reliable and valid, with important implications for a variety of individual work attitudes and organizational outcomes.

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Finally, I would like to dedicate this thesis to my fiancée Elizabeth. Without you, I would have not have had the same drive to succeed. May this completed manuscript provide you with the encouragement that you need to help complete your own doctoral studies. I love you and I appreciate everything you do for us.

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CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

Humans, as social creatures are highly dependent on the relationships that they foster with those around them. These familial and friendship ties provide individuals with a highly desirable sense of security and well-being (Williams, Neighbors, & Jackson, 2008), that can alleviate a whole range of negative outcomes (e.g., Choenarom, Williams, & Hagerty; Hagerty & Williams, 1999) and promote a desire to help those around them (Van Dick, Grosjean, Christ, &Wieseke, 2006). The importance of these relational ties is of such significance that even the perceived threat of ostracism can have detrimental effects on one's sense of belonging as well as on a variety of individual and organizational outcomes.

The treatment we receive from others plays an exceedingly important role in the way in which we evaluate ourselves. As such, humans and other social animals are often keenly aware of the quality of their social interactions, particularly when these relationships deteriorate (De Waal, 1986a; Gruter & Masters, 1986). In instances where it becomes apparent that a target is being left out or excluded by members of a desired (Eisenberger, Lieberman, & Williams, 2003; Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007; MacDonald & Leary, 2005) or undesired (Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007) group, it can have devastating effects on someone's physical and psychological well-being. This perception of being socially excluded by others is conceptualized by Williams (2001) as social ostracism. Social ostracism, defined as "the act of ignoring and excluding individuals by individuals or groups" (Williams, 2007; p. 427), has long been used as a

corrective form of punishment that ensures that deviating group members understand that they are acting in a way that is undesirable to the rest of the group, while at the same time, ensuring that future transgressors reconsider repeating that same action.

The advantages of nurturing and developing a shared sense of belongingness within the workplace have been shown to have numerous benefits to organizational effectiveness. On the other hand, situations and behaviours that threaten the basic need of belonging have been shown to have equally detrimental effects. To further this point, multiple organizational literatures including socialization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), social identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) and person-organization fit (Chatman, 1989), have long documented the importance of belongingness in the context of work. Additional research streams, including participatory leadership (Kezar, 2001) and transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993) have examined the leader's role in creating working contexts that can promote or prohibit this sense of fit with the organization.

With growing interest in the dark side of management (e.g., Clements & Washbush, 1999; Vaughan, 1999), and counterproductive workplace behaviour (e.g., Spector & Fox, 2010), research has begun to explore the detrimental effects that various forms of negative behaviour have on individual and organizational outcomes. Of particular interest to the current research is the work on social ostracism. This interest stems from a call for organizational researchers to explore more subtle and ubiquitous forms of deviant behaviour (Bennett & Robinson, 2003) as well as a growing interest in exploring this phenomenon in organizations (Balliet & Ferris, 2012; Ferris et al., 2008). Of particular import is evidence that documents the effects of ostracism across age,

demographic and cultural lines (Williams, 1997). As such, further research into both its presence and effects in organizations is merited.

For several decades, researchers in the field of social psychology have examined how social ostracism impacts those who have experienced it or who have borne witness to it (see Williams, 2007a, for review of the social ostracism literature). Findings suggest that, regardless of the previous relationship with the initiator of this behaviour, feeling left out and excluded is a painful and traumatic experience (Williams, 2007). To date, the majority of this research has been conducted in a controlled laboratory setting and has shown surprisingly robust results. In fact, even in attempts to examine the potential boundary conditions of this phenomenon, the negative effects of ostracism have been robust to various experimental manipulations, including when participants were excluded by computers rather than humans (Zadro, Williams, & Richardson, 2004), morally reprehensible groups, such as members of the Ku Klux Klan (Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007), and using cell-phones (Smith & Williams, 2004).

Being nearly ubiquitous in nature, social ostracism has been a tool used by contemporary and ancient cultures alike to maintain social control. The use of the word ostracism originates from the ancient Greek term “ostrakismos”, defined as a procedure put in place by the Athenian democracy whereby any citizen could be exiled for a period of ten years through the act of a public vote (Kagan, 1961). After ten years of exile, the ostracized citizen would be permitted to return to the city with no loss of status or wealth. Citizens voted using an “ostraka” or a shard of pottery to cast their vote. These votes were often used to diffuse potentially heated political situations and as a means of

deposing real or perceived tyrants, and any other individual who threatened the welfare of the Athenian state (Kagan, 1961).

Although the contemporary view of ostracism has changed in relation to its ancient equivalent, many of the key aspects of the concept remain the same. They both use relational isolation as their main form of social control and play a role in signaling to the target and the greater community as a whole that the behaviour being censored is unacceptable. This more generalized view of social ostracism has been documented in anthropological accounts of cultures around the world (Williams, 2007a) in addition to a variety of social animals including primates (De Waal, 1986a, 1986b; Lancaster, 1986) and lions (Williams, 1997).

1.1 Ostracism in the Workplace: Conceptual Contribution

More recently, research has begun to document the prevalence of social ostracism in various contexts. One setting that is beginning to receive increased attention is the workplace (Ferris Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008; Hitlan, Cliffton, & DeSoto, 2006; Leung, Wu, Chen, & Young, 2011). Organizations have been argued to be an ideal context for studying this phenomenon in the field for two reasons. First, organizations are hierarchical in nature, which, in turn, creates differing power dynamics whose effects can be examined and studied in the context of ostracism. Second, firms and individual careers are also highly dependent on the smooth flow of information. If information is halted, such as in the case of social ostracism, a variety of negative outcomes may arise.

On a more practical note, workplace ostracism merits further study due to its relative prevalence across organizations. In one survey, over 66% of employees reported

being given the silent treatment at some point over the last five years, while 29% reported that others intentionally left the area when they entered a room (Fox & Stallworth, 2005). In addition, in a study sponsored by the Irish government to examine methods to prevent workplace bullying, over one third of employees who reported being bullied experienced some form of ostracizing behaviour while at work (Workplace Bullying Taskforce, 2002). All of this is to suggest that even if workplace ostracism may be considered a relatively low-base rate phenomenon, it is prevalent enough across organizations to merit further study.

Recent work on the construct of workplace ostracism, defined as the perception that one is being ignored or excluded at work (Ferris, et al., 2008), has documented harmful effects on a variety of important organizational outcomes including performance, organizational citizenship behaviours and turnover intentions (e.g., Ferris et al., 2008; Leung et al., 2011; Wu, Wei, & Hui, 2011). Additionally, the personal effects of this type of behaviour have been shown to be equally harmful. Williams (2001), reporting on his research on temporary workers, proposed that the negative effects on performance for ostracized employees were due, in part, to the amount of pain associated with being ostracized, paired with the threat it poses to the basic needs of the target. He further goes on to explain that as a result of these needs being threatened, individuals are not able to function at their highest level. With such an intense desire to replenish these depleted needs, particularly the need to belong, targets may react in any number of ways to recover from their exclusionary experience, including withdrawing from the situation, doing absolutely nothing or befriending the source of the ostracism in an attempt to regain group membership (Williams, 2007a). One supplementary way in which targets

respond to ostracism is through deviant behaviours, defined as employee initiated acts that go against organizational norms (Bennett & Robinson, 2003). This *quid pro quo* manner of dealing with their aggressor has the potential to create a vicious cycle that can affect entire workgroups or organizations in a highly negative fashion.

As stated above, one of the fundamental needs that is affected the most by ostracism, particularly in work situations, is the need to belong defined as the belief that one is valued and recognized by others (Fiske, 2004). Recent meta-analytic reviews on the impact of ostracism on needs has found the need to belong as the most consistently affected need across studies (Blackhart, Nelson, Knowles & Baumeister, 2009; Gerber & Wheeler, 2009). Theoretical work in this area has shown that those whose need to belong is threatened will first attempt to restore this need by attempting to regain acceptance by increasing effort (Williams & Sommer, 1997) and ingratiation with the source of the ostracism (Willaims & Govan, 2005). The need to belong has also been shown to mediate the relationship between ostracism and various personal and organizational outcomes (O'Reilly, Robinson, Berdahl & Banki, 2014).

As individuals and workgroups interact with one another in increasingly interdependent work settings, understanding the process by which individuals choose to react to workplace ostracism presents an important challenge for organizational scholars. This paired with the notion that many employees cannot choose their colleagues, provide researchers with a setting rich with opportunities to study this phenomenon. This significant amount of time spent working alongside one's colleagues over the course of a career is likely to lead to a variety of relational strains, which, in turn, can be dealt with either through confrontation or silence. An added dimension that enriches the study of

ostracism at work is that even if only one member is actively attempting to exclude a fellow co-worker, it is generally difficult to accomplish due to confined work quarters and the necessity of interpersonal and group interaction (Grosser, Sterling, Scott, & Labianca, 2010). Yet, no matter how difficult it may be in reality to completely and utterly exclude a particular colleague, many employees continue to report these experiences at work (Ferris et al., 2008; Hitlan & Noel, 2009). As such, examining workplace ostracism seems like a natural and important step in the development of more detailed models of social ostracism behaviours.

One of the difficulties inherent in studying a construct like social ostracism in an organizational setting is the fact that it can be nearly imperceptible to observers. One of the prime outcomes of ostracism is making the target feel like they are invisible to the rest of the group (Williams, 2001). As such, ostracism can be viewed more as the absence of action rather than the application of any particular behaviour. Because invisibility plays such an essential role in both the application and outcome of social ostracism, it comes as little surprise that this phenomenon can be very difficult to observe in the field. In fact, nearly all social ostracism studies have manipulated ostracism in a laboratory, rather than observing it in a natural setting. One recent development that has served to alleviate this dependence on experimental manipulation has been the development of validated self-report questionnaires (Ferris et al., 2008; Hitlan & Kelly, 2005), which have served to open up new research streams as it is now possible to reliably probe into individual experiences with the construct.

Prior to this interest from organizational behaviour scholars, research on social ostracism, which originated from developmental and social psychology, focused

primarily on exploring its various group outcomes in controlled laboratory settings (e.g., Hitlan, Kelly, Schepman, Scneider & Zarate, 2006; Williams & Sommer, 1997; Wittenbaum, Schulman & Braz, 2010). These studies contributed to a growing body of research that point to the act of ostracism and not any other extraneous variable as the true cause of the various self-reported negative effects.

With the recent development of measurement instruments that focus on ostracism in the work context (Ferris et al., 2008; Hitlan & Kelly, 2005), scholars contend that although workplace ostracism constitutes a behaviour that could be considered to be part of the larger construct of counterproductive workplace behaviours (CWB), defined as intentional employee behaviour that is harmful to the legitimate interests of an organization (Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002), it is worthy of individual study. Further, there is research to suggest that workplace ostracism is distinct from other forms of negative interpersonal behaviour including harassment and is more strongly and negatively related to a variety of work outcomes including turnover, withdrawal and commitment (O'Reilly, Robinson, Berdahl & Banki, 2014).

Workplace ostracism is both inherently threatening to targets and difficult to observe, which makes it a particularly menacing workplace phenomenon. Furthermore, current research has confirmed that workplace ostracism is distinctly related to a variety of important organizational outcomes including perceived organizational support, job performance, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviour (e.g., Ferris, et al., 2008; Leung et al., 2011; Wu, Wei & Hui, 2011; Wu, Yim, Kwan, & Zhang, 2012). As a result of the difficulty in observing this phenomenon and the detrimental impact on organizations, it is important for scholars and practitioners to gain a greater

understanding of how to manage workplace ostracism through effective leadership intervention. Most importantly, social ostracism may also be one of the most difficult counterproductive workplace behaviours in which to successfully intervene as a third-party. The reason for this is that, unlike overt deviant behaviours such as bullying or theft, targets of social ostracism often do not have the evidence necessary to file a complaint due to its concealed and ambiguous nature. Furthermore, because it is so difficult for others to pinpoint this behaviour, it is often difficult to accurately evaluate its prevalence.

The objective of this thesis is to explore the negative effects of workplace ostracism on employee well-being. Specifically, this research focuses on the capacity of leaders to diminish or exacerbate these negative effects through their ability to intervene in the social relationships of their subordinates. This research will draw upon both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies to explore this phenomenon with the objective of demonstrating the important role that leadership plays in the prevention or promotion of workplace ostracism. There will also be a focus on providing some preliminary insight into possible solutions for this workplace issue.

The next section will explore the links between social ostracism and other aversive organizational variables, including counterproductive workplace behaviours, bullying, social undermining, silence, workplace incivility and aggression. In addition, the social ostracism model (Williams, 1997, 2001) will be discussed at length as it will serve as a framework for the following sections of the current dissertation. Finally, social ostracism and its connection with current leadership theories will be considered in an

effort to gain a greater understanding of the process by which legitimate power and influence can play a role in the prevention or promotion of ostracism in the workplace.

Following this, an exploration of the impact of leadership behaviours on experiences of social ostracism at work will be conducted using interviews with targeted individuals. A taxonomy of interventionary leadership behaviour is then derived from this investigation and will be further developed using the extant leadership literature. In an effort to test the emergent taxonomy, a survey instrument will be developed and validated with the goal of analyzing the extent to which specific leader behaviours impact the extent to which counterproductive workplace behaviours, specifically workplace ostracism, are able to take root in organizations.

1.2 Workplace Ostracism and its Parallels with Bullying

The study of social ostracism as a distinct construct worthy of study in the workplace has only recently begun to attract serious attention from management scholars (e.g. Ferris et al., 2008). Prior to this, social ostracism and exclusion were considered to be a component of broader organizational constructs such as organizational undermining behaviour (Duffy, Ganster & Pagon, 2002), workplace bullying (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Zapf, Knorz & Kulla, 1996) and workplace incivility, which includes a factor that focuses on social exclusion (Pearson, Andersson & Porath, 2005). Additionally, other constructs such as hostile workplace behaviours (Keashly & Jagatic, 2003) and workplace aggression (Neuman & Baron, 2005) have included items that are exclusionary in nature. Whether examining social ostracism through the lens of a broader construct such as organizational undermining or as a stand-alone concept, the deleterious

effects of being ignored or excluded by workplace colleagues have been demonstrated in a variety of different studies.

Workplace ostracism research can also be seen as a complementary concept to the existing research on silence in organizations (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). Van Dyne et al. (2003) developed a framework in which organizational silence was conceptualized as a multidimensional construct, which included three different intentions: being acquiescent, defensive or pro-social. Although both silence and ostracism focus on the act of withholding information, ostracism is conceptualized more as a form of disciplinary or punitive silence that was not considered in the initial organizational silence framework. In addition to this, ostracism does not necessarily have to only apply to work situations for it to have an effect. Acts of exclusion can be similarly detrimental in lunch rooms, during after work drinks with colleagues or during office retreats.

Some scholars have attempted to examine ostracism by looking at the different mechanisms involved in workplace bullying. When examining the bullying literature, social ostracism is generally perceived as a distinct category of behaviour by targets across a variety of cultures, as is evidenced in several factor analytic studies of workplace bullying measurement instruments carried out around the world. Zapf, Knorz, and Kulla (1996) were one of the first groups of researchers to examine this dimensionality of workplace bullying behaviour. Their examination of the Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terrorization (LIPT), a popular instrument for measuring bullying in organizations (Leymann, 1990), found seven factors, one of which they labeled “social isolation”. Similarly, an examination of the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ), a more

recently developed survey instrument very similar to that of the LIPT, revealed five factors, including one identically labeled “social isolation” (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997).

Bullying or mobbing, as it is often conceptualized in Europe, can be distinguished from other counterproductive workplace behaviours by virtue of four criteria that must be met: intensity, repetition, duration, and power disparity (Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, & Alberts, 2007). Intensity refers to the strength of explicit, identifiable and reportable acts that occur between the target and the initiator; repetition is the frequency of bullying events; duration is the consistency of the behaviour over a period of time; and, there must be a power disparity between the initiator and the target with the target being of lower status.

Despite the concept of social ostracism sharing with bullying the fundamental characteristic of duration, it differs in several essential ways. Social ostracism of any sort does not require a power disparity. In fact, it is one of the few means of sanctioning higher ranked members of the organization without facing serious disciplinary action. This is partially due to the ease in which these actions are concealable. Moreover, being a predominately invisible action, victims of social exclusion and ostracism are not able to discern whether the socially avoidant behaviour is intentional or not, making it extremely difficult to effectively interpret these behaviours as harmful and report these behaviours to a third party. Bullying, on the other hand, is often something that cannot be concealed as it involves more overt action such as taunting and hitting which is often easily observed by others.

Ostracism also differs from bullying in terms of its intensity. Rather than major events of intimidation and threats over a long period of time, which characterizes

bullying, individuals being ostracized in their workplace will feel isolated by way of consistent, nearly unwavering behaviour intentionally meant to show that they are unwelcome and redundant as a member of the group. As such, of the four criteria for bullying behaviour set forth by Lutgen-Sandvik et al. (2007), only the duration of the behaviour is a necessary requirement for social ostracism. With this in-depth analysis of the two concepts, it can be concluded that ostracism is conceptually distinct and worthy of individual study, regardless of its historical links with the construct of workplace bullying.

A growing number of studies have examined the effects of workplace bullying, with this research being brought about partially through the mounting public interest in the topic due to its detrimental effects on individuals, both old and young. Although the definitions of this form of emotional abuse in the workplace may change based on the researcher, one fact remains generally consistent across studies: the inclusion of items pertaining to social isolation, ostracism and exclusion. One issue in the ostracism literature has been the relative absence of discussion and interplay to bridge this field with the bullying research conducted in educational and organizational psychology (Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003). Although this is unfortunate, the fact that both research streams have shown similar findings is heartening for future research in this domain. In an effort to respond to this call for greater dialogue, the current research will bring together research from social, educational and organizational psychology to gain a greater understanding of the deleterious effects of social ostracism and whether formal leaders play an important role in its prevention or promotion.

As the field of workplace bullying has benefited from an upsurge in interest in both the management literature and the popular press, so has research in workplace ostracism. To distinguish workplace ostracism from other constructs, Ferris and colleagues (2008) outlined three reasons explaining why it is a construct worthy of individual study. First, ostracism, in general, is a distressing experience that registers in the same part of the brain as physical pain (Eisenberger et al., 2003; MacDonald & Leary, 2005). It is common for humans to seek pleasurable experiences while attempting to avoid physical or social pain. The primary reason for this is that pain is viewed as highly undesirable and generally creates intense reactions including strain and distress (Taylor, 1991). The second reason comes from the reduction in social support inherent in social exclusion. Ostracized individuals, because of lowered levels of belonging and control, have fewer resources available to deal with additional stressful situations and, as a result, will experience heightened levels of strain. Finally, already stressful situations are expected to be made even worse by the refusal of coworkers to provide aid and assistance, which affects both the target's need for belonging and self-esteem (Ferris et al., 2008).

The fact that related constructs such as social undermining and workplace bullying include so many distinct aspects has created some debate in the literature about whether studying broader constructs has more merit than individualized, focused constructs such as workplace ostracism (Edwards, 2001; Johns, 1998). Strong support has been put forward towards the importance of studying isolated dimensions of various larger constructs, particularly if both conceptual and theoretical differences exist (Edwards, 2001). This is particularly noticeable when examining the potential

confounding issues of asking respondents to discuss their perceptions of being socially excluded, while at the same time asking them to report on such divergent actions as verbal threats or criticisms. Although both groups of behaviours are damaging to the source, these types of negative interactions serve two different purposes. Verbal threats and criticism remove all ambiguity about the meaning of the action and demonstrates to the target that they exist, as opposed to ostracism where the motive may be unclear and the behaviour intentionally isolating (Williams, 2001).

Although workplace ostracism may occur at the same time as other counterproductive workplace behaviours such as social undermining and workplace bullying, it is a theoretically and conceptually distinct construct that has been recently validated in a study by Ferris and colleagues (2008). In addition to being distinct from other constructs, workplace ostracism has demonstrated its ability to predict a variety of workplace outcomes including in-role performance, turnover intentions and deviant behaviour (Ferris et al., 2008). In the following section, the theoretical underpinnings of social ostracism will be discussed as well as recent refinements to the mechanisms by which it operates.

1.3 Need Threat Model of Social Ostracism

Ostracism has often been likened to a social form of death, by which targets feel as though they no longer exist. The sensation that one's existence is not acknowledged offers a glimpse into what it may be like to experience one's own demise (Williams, 2007b). James (1890), a pioneering psychologist, was one of the first to discuss the impact of feeling nonexistent and how making one's own demise salient could be particularly painful. As individuals are continuously motivated to manage this fear of

death, they often take great strides to avoid ostracism by forming close social bonds with those around them and adhering to group norms.

In an effort to develop a greater understanding of the process of being interpersonally excluded by others, Williams (1997, 2001) proposed the need-threat model of social ostracism in which he developed a framework from which theory-driven research could methodically progress. The model uses four dimensions by which to distinguish different ostracism experiences from one another. The four dimensions of visibility, motive, quantity and causal clarity of the behaviour are considered by Williams (2001) to be independent from one another.

Visibility can be separated into two components, namely social and physical. Physical ostracism is regarded as the bodily distance or separation between one individual and others. An example of this would be a child being sent to time out or a prisoner to solitary confinement. Social ostracism, on the other hand, involves the interpersonal interaction that is withheld with a particular individual, even though the target may be in close proximity. This type of behaviour is exemplified by an individual or group deciding to give 'the silent treatment' to a deviating member of the group (Williams, 2001).

The motive dimension refers to the intent or the perceived intent behind an act of ostracism. According to the model, Williams (2001) suggests that there are up to five plausible reasons that could explain why people may perceive an experience to be ostracizing. It is also hypothesized that certain motives can have varied effects on fundamental needs, but this assertion has yet to be studied. The most innocuous of these motives is *not ostracism* where certain behaviours may be interpreted as ostracism, but in

fact, were not intended as such or can be rationalized away by the target. The second motive is *role-prescribed* where individuals are excluded in socially acceptable situations, such as ignoring other riders on public transit or the wait staff at a restaurant. A *defensive* motive refers to situations where the source may be intentionally excluding the target in order to defend themselves from scorn or similar ostracism. This would happen in cases where the source is aware that they have done something wrong and will avoid confrontation through avoidance. A *punitive* motive occurs when ostracism is used as a form of punishment for some form of real or perceived slight. Finally, possibly the most detrimental motive for ostracism is one of *obliviousness*, where the existence of the target is of little concern to the source. Targets are of such little consequence that punishment would not be worth it, because it would suggest that effort would be required. This type of behaviour is often based on such factors as race, religion and social status and can be terribly destructive to targets.

Working in close association with motive is quantity. Whereby the motive can be interpreted based more on the extent of its ambiguity, quantity of ostracism can range from partial to complete. *Partial ostracism* can be conceptualized as avoiding a target right up until the point where it becomes absolutely essential to recognize their existence. This is likely to occur in certain situations, particularly in the workplace, where it may be very difficult to avoid a given organizational member because of certain informational needs and/or other circumstances that would make avoiding interaction with that individual nearly impossible. An example of partial social ostracism in the workplace would be if two work colleagues have a normal relationship during work hours, but one chooses not to invite the other to extra-work activities such as going out for lunch or

meeting up for drinks after work (Williams, 2001). On the other side of the spectrum lies *complete ostracism*. Complete ostracism is total and complete exclusion, where the source removes all physical and social contact with the target. The objective of this type of behaviour is to ensure that the target is made to feel as though they do not exist (Williams, 2001).

The fourth and final aspect of the need threat model of social ostracism is the causal clarity of the target's behaviour. Believed to be acting on a continuum as well, the cause of the ostracizing behaviour may vary in terms of how clear the reasons are for enacting these censoring activities on the target. In the case of high causal clarity, the target would be made aware, usually in advance, about the consequences of deviating from the rules and mores of the group. An example of this would if a prisoner were to break one of the penitentiary's rules while incarcerated, it would be understood in advance that they would be sent to solitary confinement for a specific amount of time. In the case of low causal clarity, however, targets would perceive to experience being ostracized, but they would not be given an explicit explanation as to the reason or reasons for this behaviour.

1.3.1 Threatened needs

One of the key aspects of this model focuses on how individuals who experience social ostracism have their fundamental needs of self-esteem, belongingness, control and meaningful existence threatened by the experience as well as heightened levels of negative affect, particularly anger and sadness (Williams, 2001, 2007a). Although the model does not suggest that these needs are only affected by experiences of ostracism, it does focus on how various reactions to this negative interpersonal experience are often

attempts to shore up these threatened needs. Studies have been able to show that these four needs are both conceptually and empirically distinct (Sommer, Williams, Ciarocco, & Baumeister, 2001). As a result, each of these fundamental needs will be defined below and their links to ostracism will be discussed in detail.

1.3.2 Self-esteem

The first of these basic psychological needs is self-esteem, defined as a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward oneself (Rosenberg, 1965). Self-esteem has been posited to be of such importance to individuals because it acts as a means of constantly monitoring our environment for threats to group membership (Leary, 1999; 2004). This possible explanation for the origins of self-esteem has been advanced with Leary and colleagues' sociometer theory (Leary, 1999; Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995). The sociometer, according to Leary and his colleagues, acts as a relay point where positive evaluations of group acceptance are translated into self-esteem and feelings of belonging. In times of negative evaluations, however, the sociometer transmits warnings to the individual; much like the fuel gauge on a car would signal that it is nearing time to refill the tank with gas (Leary et al., 1995).

Ostracism threatens self-esteem because it is often executed to demonstrate to the target that they are unworthy of notice. Many scholars argue that rejection from one's social group poses a significant survival threat. As such, the sociometer has been posited as a series of mental processes that act as a social monitoring system to notify targets, through self-esteem, that their inclusion in a given group is at risk (Leary et al., 1995). An example of this would be when an office worker finds out that several of her colleagues have gone out for drinks the night before. As this signals to the target that they were not

interested in inviting her, her self-esteem would lower according to the signal that she may be being excluded by her colleagues. Although humans are relatively proficient at dealing with short-term attacks to their self-esteem, this signal provides the target with the notification necessary to encourage change and attempt corrective actions when the threat of ostracism is looming (Kirkpatrick & Ellis, 2001). This is likely to be the case because of the potentially long-term nature of ostracism. By attempting to deal with the situation early, this gives the target a better chance of improving their self-perceptions and stress levels (Williams, 2001).

Research has shown that social ostracism has negative links to self-esteem, even when participants are given prior notice that they would be excluded as part of the experiment. This result has been replicated several times in the literature. One example was demonstrated by Zadro et al. (2004), where they established that the effects of social ostracism, including lowered self-esteem, could occur with a computer program.

1.3.3 Belongingness

The second fundamental need to be threatened by social ostracism is that of belonging. The need to belong involves two distinct parts, the first of which involves positive and overall pleasant interactions with others and the second is that these interactions must be based on a mutually stable concern for the welfare of one another (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). This combination of affiliation and intimacy is essential to individuals and is related to higher subjective reports of well-being and happiness (Myers & Diener, 1995; Ryff & Singer, 1998). Furthermore, any noticeable absence of these behaviours can cause a variety of negative psychological and physical consequences (Williams, 2001). The inability to socially connect with desired individuals or groups,

which is categorized as social ostracism, is an inherently painful process that demands immediate attention. Once this need is threatened, the target will often go to great lengths to recover this sense of belonging.

Social ostracism researchers have repeatedly found strong links between the level of interest the target has in group membership and the threatened need of belongingness. In one study, participants were asked to read a diary comprising both social and individual events. After being excluded later in the study, those who were excluded had a much better ability to remember social events at a later time period than individual events, suggesting that when belongingness is threatened, targets become more focused on social cues in order to improve their chances of re-obtaining group membership (Gardner, Pickett, & Brewer, 2000). Furthermore, when group membership is threatened, it has been documented to have a detrimental impact on a variety of important individual outcomes, including well-being, adjustment and depression (Freedman, 1978; Myers, 1992). Being excluded from a certain group often creates an intense desire to regain prior membership and the status that goes along with it. Having one's need to belong threatened by the treatment they receive from others reduces the level of identification that the target feels towards their group (Abrams & Hogg, 1988; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). As a result, individuals may make significant gestures in order to regain group affiliation. In one study, female participants, when socially ostracized, reported significant declines in their sense of belonging and contributed more to a group task in an effort to regain this sense of belonging in the group through compensation (Williams & Sommer, 1997).

1.3.4 Control

The third basic need is the desire for control, independence and autonomy over one's life. It has long been considered to be of fundamental importance because it enables individuals to make the choices necessary to attain desired personal and organizational goals (Deci & Ryan, 1980; Williams, 2007a). In fact, we often attempt to deceive ourselves about the controllability of certain situations in order to lower our stress levels and improve our mental health (Friedland, Keinan, & Regev, 1992; Taylor & Brown, 1988).

Social ostracism imputes the need for control by affecting the way in which targets can interact with those around them in the manner that they see fit (Williams, 2001). During verbal arguments or physical altercations, the victim still has some control over the situation, even though the result may be painful. Ostracism, however, is a completely unidirectional action where the cause or intent behind the action may not always be understood. As a result, perceptions of ostracism are expected to have serious effects on perceived control.

The perception of control over one's environment allows for continued persistence after failure and greater ability to successfully negotiate difficult social situations. If the need for control is threatened, targets will go to great lengths to regain it. One recent study by Warburton, Williams, and Cairns (2006) split participants into ostracized or included conditions. Instead of being included in a five minute game of catch, ostracized participants were included for one minute and excluded from the game for the four remaining minutes. After this manipulation, subjects were asked to listen to a variety of unpleasant sounds. The control condition were given the ability to self-

administer the sounds within a given time period, while the no control condition had no ability to select when to hear the sounds. Once they had listened to the entire list of unpleasant sounds they were asked to add hot sauce to a meal that they knew the source of the ostracism would then be forced to eat, regardless of their aversion to spicy foods. The results of this study demonstrated that ostracized participants in the no control group added significantly more hot sauce than the included and high control ostracism conditions. The authors posited that aggressive responses to ostracism may depend on the extent to which the need for control is threatened. This was further supported in a recent study that showed that unpredicted rejection, which was manipulated to affect the participants' sense of control, led to higher levels of aggression (Wesselmann, Butler, Williams, & Pickett, 2010).

1.3.5 Meaningful Existence

The fourth basic need, termed "meaningful existence", derives its importance from the implicit understanding that our lives are transient and temporary. As a result, we spend much of our time trying to derive significance and meaning from the lives we live. This is one of the fundamental notions behind the terror management theory (Greenberg et al., 1992; Greenberg, Pyszczynski, & Solomon, 1986), which contends that one of the primary drivers of social behaviour is to avoid contemplating the finite nature of life by finding meaning in one's life.

In an interesting experiment, five collaborators took turns ostracizing one another for an entire day while the target kept a diary of their experience. All of this was part of an exercise to understand the true effects of this area of study. As one of the researchers would later mention "I feel like I am a ghost on the floor that everyone hears, but no one

can talk to, I want to be noticed!" (Williams, Bernieri, Faulkner, Gada-Jain & Grahe, 2000, p.54). As this quote suggests, the feeling of being imperceptible to people who were once close to you brings one's mortality and life's worth to the fore.

More recent theoretical work in the literature has stressed the importance that time plays in the process of identifying and reacting to potential ostracizing behaviours. Drawing on various theories and previous research, Williams and his colleague (Lustenberger & Williams, 2009; Williams, 2009a) present a three-stage temporal model of ostracism. This model hypothesizes that individual reactions to ostracism unfold over time and are heavily context dependent. The first stage, termed the *reflexive* stage is characterized almost entirely by distress, pain and the awareness that one's basic needs are being threatened. This initial negative reaction stage has been shown to be very robust even in situations in which negative outcomes would not be expected, such as when ostracism is carried out by a computer program (Zadro et al., 2004) or when being ostracized ends up leading to actual financial gain (Van Beest & Williams, 2006). As such, its negative effects have been seen as generally consistent.

Soon after individuals have come to the realization that they are being ostracized, they begin to enter the *reflective* or coping stage. This stage is characterized by a cognitive appraisal of the situation and attempts to recover and fortify threatened needs (Lustenberger & Williams, 2009). This appraisal has been found to begin occurring as fast as one minute after the initial ostracism episode (Wirth & Williams, 2009) and the recovery time needed for a lab controlled ostracism episode was found to take well over 45 minutes (Zadro et al., 2004).

Once cognitive appraisals have started to take place, targets become motivated to shore up their threatened needs through a variety of behavioural responses. If targets are given a means to improve their status with the group, many will choose to engage in pro-social types of behaviours. This is evidenced by a study which found that ostracized women were more likely to increase their effort on collective group tasks compared to included members (Williams & Sommer, 1997). When work was being evaluated individually, however, women did not socially compensate through harder work in either the included or ostracized condition, suggesting that this compensation was due to the possibility that they might be able to reintegrate themselves back into the group through hard work.

Results of research on behavioural responses to cognitive appraisals of ostracism have not been entirely consistent. Twenge, Baumeister, Tice and Stucke, (2001), for example, found that participants who were told that they would end up alone in the future or were rejected in the lab were found to exert more aggressive behaviours towards those who were thought to have rejected them. These anti-social behavioural responses are believed to be the effects of a lack of personal control over the situation and their lives in general (Williams, 2007a).

In an effort to explain this inconsistent finding, Williams (2007a; 2009) posits that the reaction that targets may have to their particular ostracism experience may, in part, be determined by the basic need or needs that are most acutely threatened. Although he does not go into serious detail about how and when certain fundamental needs may be threatened at which times, he posits that pro-social reactions to social ostracism are hypothesized to be more of an action that would serve to reinforce the need for

belongingness and self-esteem. He argues that this acting in a pro-social manner towards one's initiators improves the chances of forgiveness and future group membership.

Anti-social behaviours, on the other hand, would be more likely to aid in refortifying control and meaningful existence needs as the desire to reassert their existence and control over their environment can be most quickly accomplished through aggressive acts (Williams, 2007a; 2009). It must be pointed out that these propositions have not been directly tested. One study, however, found that when ostracized targets were given control over an entirely unrelated task, their aggressive behaviour directed at those who ostracized them reached levels similar to the included condition (Warburton et al., 2006). This suggests that when the need for control over one's life is adequately satisfied, ostracized members may not need to resort to aggressive acts.

Although this is not a focus of the current research, it is important to note that the differentiation in reactions to the same exclusionary treatment can elicit a variety of different reactions. These may be as a result of dispositional traits such as social self-efficacy and rejection sensitivity (Dotan-Eliaz, Sommer & Rubin, 2009) or more situational triggers such as previously threatened needs and current mood state (Van Beest & Williams, 2006; Williams & Sommer, 1997). There is currently much room for debate as little empirical research has explored these complex relationships in combination, particularly in field experiments.

The third and final temporal stage is termed the *acceptance or resignation* stage which is often a result of extended, consistent exposure to ostracism (Lustenberger & Williams, 2009; Williams, 2009). Being the target of ostracism for prolonged periods depletes an individual's ability to redevelop their threatened basic needs and is often

followed by feelings of depression and helplessness. This third temporal stage of ostracism has received the least amount of empirical support due to its relatively recent introduction in the literature and, as such, requires further research to triangulate results and seek empirical convergence (Leary, Kowalski, Smith, & Phillips, 2003; Williams, 2001).

Thus, although there has been much research highlighting the various mechanisms by which social ostracism affects targets, there is still ample work to be done considering the model is still in its nascent stage, particularly when it comes to the study of different contexts and other boundary conditions. Some important gaps involve whether the need-threat model is generalizable across settings, whether different profiles of affected needs lead to different reactions to ostracism and the importance of time in the cognitive appraisal of exclusion. In addition to the previous research streams, an important gap in the literature that will be examined in the present dissertation is the extent to which outside stakeholders, specifically formal leaders, can play a role in the prevention or promotion of ostracism.

1.4 Ostracism and Leadership

The literature on social ostracism has remained surprisingly silent on the role that formal leadership plays in its prevention or promotion. One field that has touched on this issue somewhat but from an entirely different perspective has been evolutionary psychology. Their major contention is that the threat of banishment or exile acts as a sanction to deter individual group members from seeking excessive power (Boehm, 2001; Lancaster, 1986). As previously stated, the ostracism was used nearly 2,500 years ago by Athenian citizens to banish a citizen for having exerted excessive power (Kagan, 1961).

This action not only served to effectively remove a tyrannical leader, but citizens received a first-hand view of the consequences of deviating from cultural and political norms (Gruter & Masters, 1986).

Today, however, the definition of ostracism has expanded far beyond sanctions put forth on leaders to rein in their vaulting ambition and now encompasses the physical or social isolation and exclusion of individuals or groups by other individuals or groups (Williams, 2007a). As the definition of ostracism has expanded to include more behavioural aspects, it is important that the role that leaders play in this phenomenon be revisited. No longer is ostracism used simply as a means of sanctioning the overextension of power by leaders, rather, it can be viewed as being almost hierarchy-less in that subordinates can ostracize leaders just as easily as leaders can ostracize subordinates and any number of combinations in between.

Much as the definition of ostracism has changed, so too has the definition of leadership expanded to include the social aspect of work. Over the past several decades, the emphasis in leadership studies has been to explore how leaders can cultivate and nurture high performing subordinates through a focus on relationship building. Several leadership theories, including leader-member exchange (LMX; Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006) have made this their principal focus. Because social relationships play such an important role in both of these theories and these relational connections can differ from one interpersonal dyad to another, they provide fertile grounds for exploring how leaders can act to either avert or endorse exclusion and ostracism at work.

Research on LMX has been predominately focused on the overall quality of the relationship between leaders and each of their followers. High quality relationships can be characterized by supervisors who understand the challenges that their employees face and are willing to lend the assistance necessary to find solutions to these issues. Subordinates, in turn, reciprocate this through various means such as loyalty and trust (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

The relevance of LMX in workplace ostracism is that leaders often distribute resources unequally among their subordinates (Graen, Dansereau, & Minami, 1972). This translates into differentiated relationships that not only signals to those on the lower end of the spectrum that they are less desirable to the manager, but can influence the way in which targets of various negative behaviours are chosen by peers (Sias, 1996; Sias & Jablin, 1995). Depending on the extent to which peers view the treatment of the subordinate by the leader as fair, it can lead to a variety of responses including closer relationships due to sympathy or the decision to ostracize them in order not to be guilty by association (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003; Sias & Jablin, 1995). In a different research vein, the notion of differentiated LMX relationships affecting group outcomes has been documented in the literature, where group-level diversity in leader-follower relationships were related to higher levels of potency and lower levels of team conflict (Boies & Howell, 2006). As such, the way team members relate to one another in a work context is expected to have an impact on both social ostracism and other organizational outcomes.

Recent research has additionally explored how even high-quality leader-member relationships can be punctuated by specific supervisory behaviours that may be viewed as being abusive in nature. This view has been supported in the literature as abusive

supervision and LMX formed entirely distinct constructs when studied together (Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008). Thus, when LMX relationships are low or when the predominance of negative behaviours begins to increase in dyads known for high-quality relationships, subordinates are likely to view this as a cue that they are in danger of losing their preferential place with their supervisor. This assertion has been supported by research that showed how LMX moderated the negative relationship between abusive supervision and basic need satisfaction in a sample of 260 full-time employees (Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2011).

While the effects of high quality LMX relationships have been shown to have a variety of positive outcomes on subordinates (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2011), the fact remains that it may not be possible for a leader to have equally high quality relationships with each member of their respective workgroup. As such, it may be possible for those employees with low quality LMX relationships to feel unequally treated and excluded from important information and relational support. Furthermore, as leaders learn of the importance of developing dyadic relationships with their employees, there remains little impetus for scanning the workgroup environment for excluding behaviours within the group itself. This focus on dyads is one of the limitations of this theory as effective leaders must efficaciously manage far more than dyadic relationships between themselves and their subordinates, rather, they must be aware and be ready to intervene capably in interpersonal issues that arise among subordinates in order for the workgroup to be most productive.

A similar construct that has been used to explore the links between supervisor-subordinate relationships and workplace exclusion has been the Chinese concept of

guanxi. This term describes the informal connection or relationship based on trust and shared experience between persons (Xin & Pearce, 1996; Yeung & Tung, 1996). It has deep cultural roots in Confucian ethics where subordinates are considered subjects and the leader is the ruler (Chen & Chen, 2004). Similar to LMX, the level of *guanxi* between supervisor and subordinate reflects the quality of exchange between the two parties. In a recent study, a matched sample of 343 Chinese employees showed that supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*, employee job performance and organizational citizenship behaviour were all negatively related to perceived workplace exclusion (Liu & Wang, 2011). This suggests that having a strong relationship with one's supervisor may be a means of reducing the possibility of being excluded at work. The issue with this however is the cross-sectional nature of this study which means that the actual order of the relationships cannot be clarified. It may be possible that exclusion comes as a result of a weaker relationship with supervisors or that leaders choose to exclude as a reaction to the desires of the rest of the group.

In addition to examining dyadic relationships between leader and subordinate, another major branch of leadership studies has focused on transformational leadership, defined by Bass (1985) as a series of distinct but interrelated behaviours that move beyond simple transactions to elevate follower awareness of shared outcomes by focusing on reinforcing their needs and encouraging them to go beyond their own personal interests. These behaviours include inspirational motivation, idealized influence, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Inspirational motivation occurs when the leader articulates an attractive vision of the future paired with the enthusiasm and confidence that this outlook is attainable. Idealized

influence demonstrates to all followers that the leader is willing to make personal sacrifices, while at the same time maintaining high personal and ethical standards for all stakeholders. This is also referred to as charisma. Individualized consideration is akin to high performance coaching where the leader provides encouragement and support that is customized to each follower. Finally, intellectual stimulation involves challenging previously held notions and increasing problem awareness (Bass, 1985).

To date, there have been thousands of research papers highlighting transformational leadership as the model to use for effective managers (e.g., Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Additionally, this research has been very well received by academics and practitioners alike, particularly because of the assertion that it may be possible to teach these skills to prospective managers (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). Recently, however, several notable scholars have begun to question the notion that transformational leadership is ubiquitously beneficial.

One of the key mechanisms by which transformational leaders achieve high performance is through the creation and development of subordinate personal identification (Yukl, 1998) through idealized influence and inspirational motivation. According to Howell (1988), charismatic leaders can be split into two distinct types. The first category, termed socialized charismatics, presents a vision focused on the betterment of the organization or society as a whole and is generally much more democratic and empowering in their approach as they are constantly seeking employee feedback. The second category, termed personalized charismatics, is completely self-regarding and focused solely on their own objectives without any interest for the needs of others. Rather

than seeking information from others, personalized charismatic leaders demand unwavering loyalty and compliance without question. Having this power influences the viewpoints of their subordinates; highly personalized charismatic leaders may use their ability to influence others to ostracize dissidents. Although the literature on pseudo-transformational leadership (Barling, Christie, & Turner, 2007) argues that these personalized charismatic leaders are not transformational, they nevertheless use similar behaviours to exact different outcomes for subordinates. However, organizational outcomes may not necessarily be affected as the focus is on self-aggrandizement. In sum, charismatic leadership behaviours can be used for a variety of positive or negative outcomes, depending on the motives of the leader. Those with motives that focus on personal gain and consolidation of power may use social ostracism as one means of accomplishing their personal objectives.

Another transformational leadership behaviour that may play a role in the promulgation of ostracism in the workplace, if used in the wrong manner, is individualized consideration. In an ideal setting, transformational leaders pay particular attention to the specific needs of their subordinates while, at the same time, develop the capacity of these employees through both coaching and mentorship activities (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The ability of leaders to allocate their time and energy to their subordinates is not a regulated activity. As a result of this, it is the prerogative of the leader to decide who is worthy of their time and developmentally focused activities. In some instances, the leader may choose not to provide the same resources to each individual and signal to those employees that they are unworthy by withholding these individually considerate behaviours.

Although these situations are possible, transformational leaders are generally known to do tremendous things for their subordinates. Highly transformational leaders foster not only identification with the leader, but a feeling of team belongingness. Additionally, they are also adept at analyzing and reinforcing any threatened needs in such a way as to provide a solid foundation from which to build long-lasting relationships with their followers (Bass, 1985). Finally, transformational leadership has consistently been shown to be highly correlated with leader-member exchange (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999).

The previous research highlights the possibility that even highly competent leaders may be creating, intentionally or unintentionally, an environment where one or more of their direct reports may feel excluded as a result of their actions. This does not mean that transformational leaders or leaders with high exchange relationships with some of their subordinates and lowered relationships with others are necessarily bad. Generally, transformational leaders concern themselves with the creation of a strong vision and a shared identity; the issue arises when their positive leadership behaviours are highly skewed towards certain individuals and not others or are used for their own personal gain.

Nearly every leader has the potential to ostracize as much as they have the ability to include. This provides a rationale for the view that the link between leadership and the tolerance of social ostracism at work is characterized by failures on the part of management (Sias, 2009). Leaders who take an active interest in the success of their employees will foster similarly positive behaviours in their employees (e.g., Dvir et al., 2002). Conversely, leaders who neglect their responsibilities or who are generally

inattentive to their duties rather than being conscious of them signal to their employees that other neglectful or destructive acts towards fellow employees will not be punished. The current study will examine how leaders in positions of legitimate authority are able to manage instances of workplace ostracism. It has been noted that workplace ostracism is inherently silent, difficult to observe and easy for the initiator to deny ever having committed. As a result of this, leaders are placed in an extremely difficult situation and must use all of their abilities as a leader to effectively manage this situation.

Although there is little doubt as to the importance of developing positive social relationships among workgroup members, one area that has not been sufficiently explored is the ability of the leader to pick up on interpersonal disturbances within their own work unit and act on them in a way that benefits the team and the organization as a whole. This is evident when examining the current leadership literature where effective leaders are expected to perform a number of tasks such as creating an attractive vision (Bass, 1985), developing meaningful relationships with each member of their work group (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), and clarifying paths to desirable goal completion (House, 1996). What has been absent, however, is a leader's ability to accurately survey the relational landscape of their workgroup and effectively intervene when issues arise.

In sum, as the economies of developed nations have divested themselves from large-scale manufacturing operations into more service-oriented jobs, leadership has been in the process of redefining itself from a single-minded focus on efficiency and productivity to the ability to develop amicable working relationships with subordinates. This dissertations takes this one step further by arguing that leaders must not only be concerned with their relationship with each subordinate, but also with the *relationships*

that are developed between subordinates. The current dissertation contends that being able to manage the inter-group social landscape may be as important as managing the various dyadic relationships with followers in developing highly effective workgroups. What we expect is that leaders who are able to effectively manage and intervene in various inter-group disturbances will have more harmonious teams that will perform better and report higher individual health and well-being outcomes.

1.5 Current Research

The overarching objective of this dissertation is to develop a taxonomy of leadership action as it pertains to the prevention or promotion of exclusionary behaviour in their workgroup. In an effort to accomplish this, we integrate the use of both qualitative and quantities methodologies to both develop a theory and test it empirically. By understanding how leaders behave in the presence of ostracism, an obscured and often difficult to perceive workplace phenomenon, we hope to expand the understanding of this leadership behaviour to other aspects of organizational behaviour.

The current research is separated into five distinct, but interrelated studies. The first study will examine, by means of personal interviews, how workplace ostracism is perceived and interpreted by its victims and the role that formal leadership played in their experience. Due to the relative dearth of research on ostracism experiences in the workplace, Study 1 will explore the role of leaders during instances of workplace ostracism using a sample of employees who have been ostracized at work. These employees will be probed as to their personal experiences with workplace ostracism and how it has affected performance and various other organizational and individual outcomes. Particular emphasis, however, will be placed on the way in which the

participants interacted with their managers while experiencing being ostracized during their tenure with their organization. The second qualitative study will explore how leaders view their role in the prevention or promotion of workplace ostracism. The focus of this second study is to further develop the taxonomy of leadership interventionary behaviours. Study 3 focuses on the development and validation of a scale to measure this newly developed leadership behaviour taxonomy. The objective of Study 4 is to examine how leaders at different levels of the organizational hierarchy exhibit these behaviours and whether they predict different outcomes. Finally, Study 5 attempts to examine whether subordinate ratings of the relational leadership interventionary scale can be aggregated to the team level and its ability to predict supervisor performance ratings.

The current dissertation contributes to the leadership literature by focusing on how leaders are able to effectively manage the relationships in their workgroup through relational interventionary leadership behaviours. The research is set firmly in the behavioural tradition of leadership theories (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Stogdill, 1963; Yukl & Lepsinger, 1990) which focuses on the actual behaviours of leaders, rather than their dispositional characteristics. In addition to a new taxonomy of leadership behaviour, this construct adds to the leadership literature in several ways. This construct focuses on the ability of leaders to not only understand and be aware of the relationships that form among their employees, but also the strength and the desire to intervene when it is perceived that certain subordinates are being treated in an unjust manner.

As this construct is behaviourally-based, it is both action-oriented and trainable (Barling et al., 1996; Day, 2011; Orvis & Ratwani, 2010). This means that leaders can be taught the importance of understanding the social network of their workgroup and ways

of creating a more harmonious working situation for all members. Finally, with the growing interest in ways of counteracting other counterproductive workplace behaviours such as bullying, this taxonomy provides a potential means of training managers to properly intercede through deliberate leadership intervention.

Answering the call made by Johns (2006) to place more emphasis on contextual factors in organizational behaviour, this research will additionally explore the effect of leadership as context in the case of workplace ostracism. Formal leaders often have the ability to set the emotional tone of the workgroup. This has been documented in various cases where leaders are able to directly influence the climate of their workgroup (Koene, Vogelaar, & Soeters, 2002; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010; Zohar, 2002). As such, it is believed that the extent to which managers and supervisors act to intervene in social transgressions in their workgroup, while at the same time creating an inclusive working environment, will go a long way towards improving the overall work climate of the workplace.

In previous attempts to understand the phenomenon of social ostracism at work, Williams (2001) continued to build on the whistleblowing literature (Miceli & Near, 1992; Near & Miceli, 1986), by examining how employees who reported fraudulent or corrupt actions in the workplace were often shunned by their colleagues. Many employees who took part in the shunning of these organizational whistleblowers felt angry because their careers were put in jeopardy by these actions. As such, they made their dissatisfaction and anger known through complete social isolation both inside and outside the workplace.

A second qualitative research project that was carried out by Williams (2001) in an organizational setting focused on temporary workers and how they were treated by full-time employees. They reported feeling as though they were rarely paid any attention to due to their part-time involvement within the organization. This created negative repercussions for these temporary workers both at work and at home. These two studies of temporary workers and whistleblowers were predominately focused on the targets' threatened need for control, self-esteem, belonging and meaningful existence and did not concern themselves with the actions taken by organizational leaders or any mechanisms used by targets to deal with their experience.

By examining the role of leader actions in the prevention and promotion of ostracism at work, the current research contributes by bridging the disparate literatures of social ostracism and leadership together by showing that individuals in leadership positions have the ability to improve or exacerbate cases of workplace ostracism. Of particular interest will be the intersection of Williams' (1997, 2001) model of social ostracism, which focuses on the personal and often negative experiences of targets and the behaviour-based leadership literature that emphasizes how leader actions can encourage and develop subordinates (e.g., Bass, 1985; Dansereau et al., 1975; Yukl, 1998).

All of these theories will be used to explore the overlooked managerial role of internal environment scanner and intervener. This role has not been specifically addressed for a variety of reasons. The most logical explanation for this omission is because leaders who effectively deals with interpersonal issues within their workgroup can be integrated into a variety of larger leadership constructs (e.g., servant leadership).

This notion runs in parallel with the development of workplace ostracism as an independent workplace construct as it was first introduced as a dimension of larger constructs including workplace incivility (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001) and bullying (Einarsen, 1999).

The newly created survey instrument contributes to the literature of leadership behaviour as it will enable an operational test of three specific behavioural continua that serve to evaluate the extent to which formal leaders intervene in workplace ostracism. It is expected that leaders will have the capacity to contribute, deter or remain oblivious to social rejection episodes in the workplace and this will be reflected in the above mentioned leader interventionary model.

The development of this survey instrument to examine the leader's interventionary behaviour is also believed to contribute to the leadership literature well beyond its links to workplace ostracism as this desire to intercede in the social relationships of one's subordinates can have a variety of effects on organizational outcomes. This will also serve to highlight a relatively unexplored aspect of the research on leader behaviours, namely, the ability to resolve interpersonal conflict among subordinates and the effects of not being able to accomplish this effectively. This follows the research conducted with both top management teams and lower-level employees that states that employees perform better when they work in a group that is characterized by close personal ties (Collins & Clark, 2003; Cross & Cummings, 2004).

In the preceding section, the relationship between workplace ostracism and leadership was explored. This research draws upon a number of leadership theories,

including among others the Full Range Leadership Theory, and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) to support the notion that leaders have the ability to directly impact the promulgation of ostracism in the workplace. The next chapter will describe the first study of this research program, which attempts to develop, using grounded theory, a taxonomy of leader interventionary behaviours, using a sample of 30 employees from a wide range of backgrounds and industries.

CHAPTER TWO

2. STUDY 1: EXPLORATORY QUALITATIVE STUDY

With the objective of exploring the effects of leader behaviours on workplace ostracism experiences, this first study sets out to gain a greater understanding of how workplace ostracism presents itself in an organization and what steps, if any, were taken by leaders to improve or exacerbate the situation. To explore this research question, a qualitative study was conducted using a sample of 30 working adults who were experiencing or had previously experienced ostracism in the workplace. The research was guided by three research questions, each of which set out to explore a different component of this dynamic workplace phenomenon and to gain a greater understanding of the different roles that various organizational actors, including leaders, play in its prevention or promotion. Below, the rationale for these three research question is presented.

In the present study, workplace ostracism is defined as the extent to which a person perceives that he or she is ignored or excluded by others in the workplace (Ferris et al., 2008). This definition closely aligns with that of Williams (1997), with the exception that it focuses solely on work colleagues. This means that information about family members, friends and significant others were only used when it came to exploring the coping mechanisms used by respondents.

We also attempt to extend the research of Williams (2001) who examined the experiences of temporary workers and whistleblowers with social ostracism by studying how these employees rationalized their experiences. Rather than focusing on exclusion

based upon particular distinguishing factors, such as their position within the hierarchy (temporary workers) or a particularly identifiable act (whistle blowing), Williams examined the experiences of workers who have self-identified as being ostracized at work. One objective of Study 1 was to gain a greater understanding of how victims rationalize these experiences as well as the way in which they perceive their treatment by supervisors who have been tasked with ensuring that they stay satisfied and productive. We attempt to do this by using the need-threat model of social ostracism (Williams, 1997, 2001, 2007) as a framework to see whether the various reactions to this type of negative workplace behaviour coincide with those proposed in the model.

Of particular interest to this particular research question was a qualitative component of a study conducted by Hitlan et al. (2006). The study, in addition to testing a model of social exclusion, attempted to collect more fine-grained information about instances of workplace ostracism experienced by a sample of working students at a large Midwestern University. Through the addition of several open-ended questions to their standard questionnaire the researchers focused on gaining more information on the type of behaviours used, the perpetrators of the behaviour, and the frequency with which it occurred. The results showed that the majority of respondents to this section reported that they were excluded by more than one person and that the actions were perpetrated by supervisors or coworkers who were often older than they were (Hitlan, Cliffton & DeSoto, 2006). This research provides evidence to suggest that there can be significant variation both in terms of the source of the ostracism as well as the potential differing effects that this treatment can have on individuals at work. From this, the following first research question was developed:

How is social ostracism perceived, interpreted and dealt with by individuals in the workplace?

From its very origins of the term "ostrakismos" where citizens of Athens would vote to expel a tyrannical leader, the word ostracism has had deep links with leaders and leadership. It was originally used as a means of deterring those with vaulting ambition or threatening motives from assuming too much power through organized group exclusion (Boehm, 2001; Lancaster, 1986). Today, the term ostracism has been expanded to encompass the exclusion of individuals or groups by individuals or groups (Williams, 2007a) and no longer considers the role that hierarchy and power plays in this most recent conceptualization of ostracism.

Some of the earliest studies and theories in social psychology examined the role that social ostracism plays in groups and the decisional power of leaders to enact this type of censoring behaviour (Festinger, 1954; Fesinger & Thibaut, 1951; Schacter, Ellertson, McBride & Gregory, 1951). This work suggests that team members who deviate too much from group norms run the risk of rejection and exclusion from the group. Blau (1964) examined initiation, retention and expulsion experiences of individuals in small groups and cliques. He documented how, in order to gain entry into a desired group, members exaggerated their abilities as well as their potential benefits to the team in order to appear more desirable. After gaining entrance, however, newly initiated group members would quickly shift from focusing on their personal skills and abilities to placing an emphasis on their shortcomings and speaking more about the accomplishments of the team in order to reduce competition and create harmony within

the group. This transition is grounded in both a desire to remain a member of the group paired with the fear of isolation.

Of most relevance here, Blau (1964) concluded that the member with the most influence over the inclusion or exclusion of individuals from the clique is most often the group's leader. If a member was removed from the group due to a real or perceived threat, the rest of the group would be secure in the knowledge that the threat had been removed, while simultaneously becoming more cohesive. The power of social ostracism can be used by the leader to create an environment that effectively removes unwanted members, while consequently strengthening group cohesion. This feeling of inclusion is often felt to be attractive for members because there is a level of prestige derived from membership screening, thus creating distinct in-groups and out-groups. The separation of in-group from out-group creates a sense of in-group togetherness and distinctiveness from other groups, and provides an incentive for continued membership and perpetual fear of the possibility for banishment (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Tajfel, 1978).

In the case of both social and workplace ostracism, three roles feature prominently, namely, targets who are those that directly experience being ostracized, sources who either knowingly or unknowingly initiate the ostracizing behaviours, and bystanders who witness others being ostracized at work (Williams, 1997; 2001). As each of these plays a significant, yet differing, role in the ostracism process, one objective of this study is to attempt to examine the roles that formal leaders take in this phenomenon. To further expand on this, we attempt to build on existing scholarship that has examined how leaders can play a role in the promotion or prevention of negative employee

outcomes. The section below is split into these two sections of inclusive and excluding behaviours and highlights some of the research that serves to support the idea that leaders do, in fact, play a critical role in the creation of an inclusive or an exclusionary workplace climate.

2.1 Inclusive Leadership Behaviours

Leaders are hypothesized to have a significant impact on the prevention or promotion of workplace ostracism through a variety of different behaviours. Recently, the concept of leader inclusiveness was introduced (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006), which argued that inclusive leaders invite and appreciate subordinate contributions. These leaders also serve to create collaborative links through the development of a shared sense of psychological safety and comfort. This type of leadership behaviour is the complete antithesis of social ostracism in that inclusive leaders make a deliberate attempt to actively create an environment of belonging and respect throughout the workgroup. Their inclusive intents are made explicit through both the constant engagement with their subordinates and their personal focus on the needs of their followers. Several parallels can be found between this construct of leader inclusiveness and transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). These include the desire of these leaders to individually consider the needs and desires of their subordinates as well as inspiring all members of the workgroup with a vision that highlights the synergistic abilities of the team working in cooperation.

If these leaders become aware of inter-faction tensions within their group, they use their positional power to prevent the situation from spreading and becoming more pervasive, all the while taking steps to mediate the situation and find a resolution. One

method that can be used to alleviate this situation is through attempting to create more communication and understanding within the group. By actively engaging with subordinates to attempt to resolve that situation in a mutually beneficial way, the leader serves to diffuse a potentially destructive workgroup issue. It is unclear, however, how successful these interventions will be, given that no serious structural changes are made to the workgroup dynamics. Rather, it may simply be that after the leader has attempted to intervene in the ostracism directed towards the victim, the perpetrator or perpetrators will become even more entrenched in their desire to exclude the target and will redouble their efforts while attempting to keep their actions outside the leader's notice.

2.2 Excluding Leadership Behaviours

Contrary to many other forms of counterproductive workplace behaviour, social ostracism is a predominately invisible action. This presents challenges for leaders and victims alike in developing methods to deal with the situation effectively (Williams, 1997). Due to the fact that social ostracism focuses on the absence rather than the presence of this behaviour, not all organizational members, including leaders, may perceive its occurrence. As such, it may be possible for the leader to be completely ignorant of any exclusionary activity taking place in their workgroup.

Issues arise only if formalized complaints are made to management. Once this occurs, then it is up to the leader to act in a way to try to effectively deal with this situation. Leaders who are made aware of ostracism and who choose to disregard the complaint may have a variety of reasons for deciding to act in this way. These leaders may conclude that it is in their best interest to side with the larger group and begin to

actively defend the initiators in order to maintain team cohesion, while others may simply disregard the complaint completely.

Einsarsen, Aasland and Skogstad (2007) developed a conceptual model in which they proposed three categories of destructive leader profiles based on their organizational and subordinate orientations. These destructive leaders are classified as being either tyrannical, derailed, or supportive-disloyal based on their intentions towards their organization and their subordinates (Ashforth, 1994; McCall & Lombardo, 1983; Tepper, 2000). A tyrannical leader is viewed as someone with negative intentions towards their employees and whose sole motivation is meeting organizational objectives at the cost of subordinates. This fits with the above mentioned example as the tyrannical leaders are likely to create scapegoats in an effort to help them to accomplish their own goals and improve their status within the organization (Ma, Karri, & Chittipeddi, 2004).

These leaders may also choose to overtly engage in the social exclusion as a power-based strategy to improve performance within their group. This, paired with the fact that observing social exclusion is a complicated endeavour and that the evidence of these transgressions is often difficult to collect, makes it even more challenging to remove or demote these leaders from their position of power. As such, these leaders are expected to use this type of censoring behaviour as their predominant means of ensuring compliance, as it is both effective and less likely to lead to reprimands from upper management.

It may also be possible that the leader places no importance whatsoever on their subordinates and evenly distributes exclusionary behaviours to all members of their workgroup. This type of behaviour is consistent with the concept of passive leadership

(Skogstad et al., 2007), as leaders do not necessarily single out targets to exclude, but rather they are characteristically arrogant, aloof and cold towards all those who work under them and focus solely on their own issues, rather than that of their organization or subordinates. This plays into one of the most destructive ostracism motives where the initiator has little regard for their victims because they are perceived to be below their notice (Williams, 1997, 2001).

The decision by leaders to act on a complaint may hinge on a variety of factors including the amount of presentable evidence of the behaviour and the provability of the target's claims. Because of the difficulty inherent in getting involved in the interpersonal conflicts of subordinates, passivity may end up being the simplest short-term solution for leaders as they can easily discount potential exclusionary behaviour as something other than ostracism. This decision to not act is believed to be tremendously harmful to ostracized victims as it demonstrates that their claims will not be taken seriously and are unworthy of action. These complicit leaders may be fully aware of the situation, yet choose not to intervene. By failing to provide even the most rudimentary level of support to victims going through difficult social situations, these leaders demonstrate poor leadership (Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis & Barling, 2004). Rather, these leaders may take pleasure in watching the events unfold, while making sure that they steer clear of actively getting involved in anything that may tarnish their reputation. This passive-aggressive behaviour draws resemblance to the notion of *schadenfreude*, defined as the act of drawing pleasure from the pain of others (Merriam-Webster, 2003). It is also conceptually linked to abusive leadership (Tepper, 2000), as leaders simply watch the slow deterioration of ostracized victims.

With the concept of social ostracism becoming a widely recognized and researched topic in both organizational behaviour and social psychology and the distinct possibility that leaders may play a significant role in how this phenomenon is promulgated or halted at work, it is important that research explore how leadership behaviours can impact workplace ostracism. Those in positions of power and authority have a variety of means by which to exert influence on their subordinates (French & Raven, 1959). Equally, their subordinates have the potential to react in various ways to this influence. As a result, the potential for workplace ostracism is present for both leaders and subordinates alike. The current study will explore the original conceptualization of ostracism as a means of censuring individual behaviour and actions as well as how leaders act to amplify or reduce this form of behaviour in their workgroup. As such, the following research question is proposed:

What is the role that formal leaders play in the prevention or promotion of social ostracism in the workplace?

Recently, researchers have begun to examine how ostracism at work impacts both individuals and organizations alike. In a recent study of working undergraduate students, men reporting high levels of exclusion showed significantly lower levels of both job satisfaction and psychological health (Hitlan, Cliffton, & DeSoto, 2006). The authors contend that ostracism at work was more deleterious for men because they are much more likely to define themselves by their career than their female counterparts. Recent work on workplace exclusion has been extended to show significant positive relationships with counterproductive workplace behaviours (Hitlan & Noel, 2009), in addition to reduced levels of both work engagement and service performance (Leung et

al., 2011). The present study builds on the extant literature on workplace ostracism to explore how experiences of being ostracized in the presence of others at work influence important individual and organizational outcomes. As such, the following third research question was developed:

What are the effects of workplace ostracism on individual employees?

2.3 Study 1 Method

The main objective of Study 1 was to examine how employees who have experienced workplace ostracism episodes during their tenure perceive their leaders to be aware of their difficulties and whether management takes an interest in creating, exacerbating or avoiding the situation entirely. Additionally, the current research examined the attribution that targets make regarding this behaviour and investigated the various personal and organizational effects of workplace ostracism Through the use of personal interviews, this study attempted to gain a greater understanding of these three research questions in an effort to elucidate the phenomenon of workplace ostracism and the various roles played by organizational actors, including leaders. Next, the methodological approach underwent in this study is discussed in greater detail.

Grounded theory methodology was used (Charmaz, 1990, 1995; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1998) in order to develop a theoretical understanding of leader interventionary behaviour that is grounded in the experiences of a variety of participants, rather than drawing explicitly from other theories. The research question regarding the effects of ostracism, however, was developed with a priori beliefs that we attempted to

find support for. Consistent with the original theory, grounded theory methodology involves systematically obtaining and analyzing data in a constant cycle throughout the entire process (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Thus, theory and concepts result from methodically examining the data over the entire course of the research process (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This enables the researcher to delve into the experiences of the participants and explore the internal processes that occur within each individual and how they are created and change during a particular episode (Charmaz, 1995).

Selection of qualitative methodology was appropriate for the current study for several reasons. Consistent with the primary objective of the research to examine how formal leaders dealt with instances of workplace ostracism, this study focused on gathering the stories of employee targets of social ostracism and their views on the role that their leaders played in their workplace experience. As social ostracism is such a personalized phenomenon, qualitative research methodology can be used as a means of obtaining highly detailed features about feelings, emotions and personal experiences (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Conducting personal interviews with individuals who have experienced workplace ostracism first-hand is pivotal to the development of a theory that can be tested across organizational contexts. As there has been no work that has looked at the effects of leadership and power on social ostracism at work, we anticipate the development of a substantive theory of how leaders decide to intervene over the course of these workplace disturbances. Substantive theories are considered to be provisional theories that provide researchers with a justifiable first point from which to test hypotheses and move towards

more formalized theories (Locke, 2001). As such, an implicit assumption in the current study rests on the idea that exploring leader reactions to workplace ostracism through the eyes of targets from first-hand interviews using constant comparison and analysis will serve to generate a framework from which to test hypotheses in the field.

2.3.1 Sample

Qualitative data were gathered from two distinct groups who both were currently employed and reported having experienced some form of ostracism at work. The first group was made up of student volunteers from an introductory business course at a major Canadian educational institution ($N = 10$). The second group was recruited using a snowball sampling methodology to collect an older sample of working participants ($N = 20$) for a total of 30 participants. The researcher asked colleagues and acquaintances to invite members of their respective social networks who had previous exposure to workplace ostracism to take part in the research. Interested parties from both groups who had experienced ostracism at work in the past six months took part in similarly structured interviews conducted by the researcher.

Due to the exploratory nature of this research project, no constraints were placed on the age, sex, type of industry or whether participants were working part-time or full-time at their place of employment. In total, 30 participants took part in these interviews. True to the tenants of grounded theory, data emerged in an unforced manner and all participants were comfortable talking about their experiences with workplace ostracism, even though some participants would become mildly upset, when recounting particularly painful experiences.

In the first exploratory portion of the study, ten participants recruited through a snowball sampling technique, agreed to take part, three of whom were male. The group had a mean age of 25.9 (*SD* = 8.82) and came from various sectors: four from the corporate sector, four from the non-profit sector and two from the public sector. The average tenure for the sample was 17.19 months (*SD* = 28.18); however, the amount of time in the position from the onset of ostracism behaviour to either resignation, transfer or the time of the interview was dramatically shorter 9.35 months (*SD* = 8.26). All interviews were conducted using a semi-structured interview protocol and were tape recorded with the interviewees' consent. The ten interviews lasted an average of 29.48 (*SD* = 9.48) minutes and ranged between 19 and 47 minutes.

After having coded this first group of ten interviews, a broader theoretical sample of an additional 20 employees was recruited for the purpose of examining leader behaviour during workplace ostracism experiences in a more focused way. This overall sample of 30 respondents was made up of 18 women and 12 men with a mean age of 32.34 (*SD* = 15.82). They had an average job tenure of 54.24 months (*SD* =114.64) and worked and average of 39.48 hours per week (*SD* = 29.16). Ten respondents came from the public sector; sixteen from the private sector and four came from the non-profit sector. Fifty-seven percent of the sample worked full-time. The total length of the interview lasted an average of 32 minutes and 14 seconds (*SD* = 11.24) and covered the entire workplace ostracism experience, from its initial onset and its personal and organizational effects to the treatment received by their formal leader.

2.3.2 Procedure

The interview consisted of questions regarding participants' personal experiences with ostracism, their perceptions of the treatment they received from their leaders and any effects this experience may have had on them. Prior to agreeing to take part in the interview, all prospective recruits were read a short recruitment script (see Appendix A) highlighting the objectives of the study as well as a short definition of workplace ostracism. The script also ensured potential participants that all responses would be kept strictly confidential and all names would be changed prior to any data analysis. Upon completion, each participant was asked if they knew or had heard of other people who had, or were facing, similar experiences in an effort to expand the sample. All interviews with participants took place in a setting outside of their organizational environment. As such, all interviews were conducted in the private office of the researcher. This decision was made based on the desire to interview participants in a place where the participant would feel comfortable discussing their story (Partington, 2000).

Interviewees were asked to discuss their workplace exclusion experience in as much detail as possible. Then, they were asked questions pertaining to their organizational leaders. Involved in this line of inquiry was a series of questions with a particular emphasis on the relationship that the respondents had with their supervisor and manager as well as the extent to which these leaders were present or absent during the aforementioned exclusion episode and the role, if any, that they played in this experience. Finally, the effects of this experience on all aspects of their life as well as their performance at work were probed. All interview questions are provided in Appendix A.

In the lead-up to all questions pertaining to workplace ostracism or their relationship with their leader, respondents were first asked to discuss their working context including their position within their organization, their responsibilities as well as the amount of contact they have with their coworkers and supervisors. Upon acquiring as much information as possible about their role within their organization, respondents were then asked to give an example of an instance where they felt as though they were left out, excluded or ostracized by an employed member of their workplace.

Upon completion of the interview, all participants were fully debriefed regarding the main research questions. Additionally, all participants were given a detailed summary of the research goals and contact information of the researcher as well as the University's counseling and development department, in case participants had any future questions or concerns regarding the interview or their personal experience. As interviews were conducted, the recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim by the primary author along with all notes taken. Then, all identifying information including individual, company and place names were removed from each transcript and respondent names were replaced with pseudonyms for confidentiality purposes and ease in reporting.

2.3.3 Coding and Themes

Grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1998) has long been used in organizational research to gain a deeper understanding of the internal workings of individual respondents and enable the researcher to use each narrative to create additional theory. This method is also helpful for researchers because it provides a useful means of gathering evidence about a variety of organizational issues and exploring potential research gaps through the development of new theories.

The open-coding process which involves reading through the data on multiple occasions and looking for common themes provides a means of examining commonalities among the various transcripts in a way that lets the interviews be the primary driver of developing codes and creating themes. Upon the completion of each transcript, the researcher translated each one into a single page narrative documenting the key facts of the ostracism experience. This process serves to create an easy reference source for future analysis as it highlighted the important facts and outcomes of the interview.

Once all of the interviews were completed and transcribed, the next stage was to begin analyzing the data. Grounded theory relies heavily on open coding and constant comparison of data to find categories that may later become emergent themes. This is usually accomplished by examining each line of transcript and continues until larger categories emerge from these smaller codes, but it is also possible for themes to emerge earlier in the data collection process as the researcher must always be looking at similarities and differences among respondents. To help with this comparison process Glaser (1978; 1988) suggests that researchers ask themselves three questions on a continuous basis throughout analysis of the data: (1) What is this a study of? (2) What category does this incident indicate? (3) What is actually happening in the data? All three of these questions keep the researcher focused on the data. Due to its emergent nature, the main issue may deviate significantly from the investigator's original research intentions. Coding is an analytical technique that helps to organize information while at the same time creating meaning from the data.

Through a combination of constant comparison and theoretical sampling, codes and overarching themes were mined from the data. These themes acted as the framework to answer the proposed research questions. To ensure the validity of emerging themes, colleague examination was used (Merriam & Simpson, 1995).

2.3.4 External Coding Procedure

An external reviewer with knowledge in the area of leadership and workplace ostracism participated in the second stage of the coding process. The researcher and external reviewer each independently analyzed the data from all 30 transcripts using the first set of codes that had been established by the researcher. As some disagreements occurred with regards to the allocation of codes, the coders met frequently to discuss any discrepancies and to ensure that complete consensus was achieved between the researcher and the external reviewer. This process has long been used to establish reliability in the coding as well as semantic validity, which is defined as a situation whereby multiple similar interpretations validate the conclusions that are made about the data (Weber, 1990). Upon settling on a finalized list of codes, both the lead researcher and the coder went over finalized versions of the coding and analyzed each transcript. Cohen's kappa across coders was .89, which in terms of strength of agreement is considered acceptable (Altman, 1991).

Once this process of constantly comparing new interviews to the point where no new insight was being gleaned from these additional discussions and theoretical saturation had been reached (Bowen, 2008; Strauss & Corbin, 1998), the study was ended and the full analysis of the data began. Theoretical saturation or informational redundancy, as it also can be called, simply means that new information gathered by the

researcher begins to repeat itself and new understanding of the topic of interest begins to wane.

The next step involved reducing the codes into broader themes (Goulding, 2005). These codes, generally derived from a respondent's word or short phrase, are then associated with one of the research questions and merged with other comments to form themes. Themes are broader, more abstract constructs that are identified before, during and after all of the data has been collected. Deriving themes from text is one of the key aspects of open coding and can be accomplished using simple pattern recognition. This is followed by selective coding, where the researcher begins to focus on theoretical sampling. This process involves searching out new samples and data that complement the emerging concepts and patterns within the data and integrating them into the study (Goulding, 2005).

Codes were retained if they proved to have significant links with one of the three research questions and reappeared across a significant portion of those being interviewed. This ensured that there would be some comparability among cases as well as to increase the overall relevance of the findings. In total, six major themes emerged from the interviews including ostracism behaviours, the intentions of both supervisor and managers, coping methods as well as personal and organizational costs associated with exposure to ostracism at work. These themes will be discussed in greater detail in the following section and are each represented by a quote in APPENDIX B.

2.4 Study 1 Results

2.4.1 Ostracism Behaviours

When asked to explain an instance where respondents felt as though they were excluded or isolated by any employed member of their workplace, respondents interpreted this question in multiple ways. The primary means of interpreting being excluded by coworkers was through *social ostracism*, defined as the perception of being ignored or excluded in the presence of others (Williams, 1997). One respondent noted how her experience was one where she was "constantly feeling left out" and where colleagues refused to "look me in the eye" or as another put it, he was "completely isolated." A notable example of this type of ostracism came from Gail, a waitress who explained that during preparation times she was "standing literally right next to the person (source)…they could be in a conversation with somebody else and just pretend like you are not there, you could try to integrate, but…they were clearly not interested." These feelings of exclusion and isolation were particularly salient as attempts to gain acceptance into the in-group were rebuffed "they didn't want to talk to us, you can't really force that." Another example of social ostracism came from Andrea, a public servant who had great difficulty fitting into her workgroup due to both her youth and inexperience with the role "It was like no one talked to me, honest to goodness, I don't think I developed one relationship outside of my manager and my middle manager, I really don't think I developed close relationships with anyone else, because they wouldn't give me the time of day."

In some instances, individuals felt as though they were being physically isolated where physical barriers would be intentionally placed between the source and the target

of ostracism, such as in the case of Joan "They spent a lot of time in each other's offices with the doors closed and I wasn't part of that", Don "They might try to leave five minutes early before I noticed they were leaving and maybe congregate outside" or Simon "At lunch in the cafeteria, the French guys ate together and I ate alone." This physical separation has been classified by Williams (1997, 2001) as *physical ostracism*, which is considered distinct from social ostracism as it involves the source or sources of the ostracism physically removing themselves from the presence of the target, rather than simply not including the target in their conversations.

In addition to the larger themes of social and physical ostracism, several other themes begin to emerge that focused on different aspects of this phenomenon. The first of these themes is *language exclusion*, which we define as any situation in which people converse in a language that others are not able to comprehend (Dotan-Eliaz et al., 2009). This type of marginalization showed a particular impact on respondents during times of non-work. Blake, who worked in a predominantly French warehouse, would experience this during lunch periods "It would all be in French and people were talking quickly and usually you could tell I wasn't a part of it when I would pull out my phone…just trying to take my attention off of it" (Blake). Sanford, a predominantly English-speaking employee at a food manufacturing facility that was staffed by mostly French-speaking employees, also highlighted the potential confusion surrounding this type of ostracism behaviour "At times I also made the assumption that people were talking behind my back because they would say a joke and all laugh but I wouldn't get it cause it was in French."

The next emergent theme with regards to ostracism perceptions was *information exclusion*, viewed as a more nuanced take on ostracism where respondents often

discussed how they would receive conflicting messages, feeling out of the loop or intentionally left out from important information (Jones, Carter-Sowell, Kelly & Williams, 2009). During her interview, Rita, an employee from a government agency mentioned how confusing her experience was "I often didn't know what was going on. Even if it was to do with a file I was working on, she [the supervisor] might discuss it with one of her favorites, but not with me." This feeling that important information was not being equally distributed in the workgroup was eloquently stated by Diane "She [the manager] has two people on the unit now that she absolutely shows preference to. Information is shared with those two people, but not with us. Sometimes we will get information late and we'll ask when did that come to be?"

The last and final act of workplace ostracism discussed in the interviews was one of *observed ostracism* (Wesselmann, Bagg & Williams, 2009). This occurred where respondents would discuss how they observed others being similarly treated while recounting their own treatment. Of particular interest was how this treatment was often initiated by the same source. This was described by Don, a human resource staff member who observed how another member of his group was being ostracized, as he put it "She felt like she didn't quite fit with the rest of the culture…I don't want to say there was hostility, but there was a sort of coldness between her and some of the others." Similarly, Diane who is a social-worker documented "I had a student working under me once and I had not said anything to her and then one day she asked if I would help her with an essay and she said I was writing it about prejudice within a unit like this. She said that it was blatant that [one of my co-workers] is excluded, and that the manager has preferences to others in the unit."

2.4.2 Coping Methods

All respondents attempted to cope with their problems in a variety of ways and nearly all of them attempted to reinforce their need to belong by means of seeking out social support. The ways in which the participants sought out support varied considerably as some attempted to find workplace allies "We [colleagues] would just talk about how awful it was we really didn't talk about solutions" (Amanda), while others used friends "Yes, my friends knew about it, I mean my best friend knew about it. I remember speaking to her on breaks" (Gail), family members "I complain to my mom too, early on I would say that I would complain and sought advice from my mom in particular, but also from my brother and sister as well."(Paul), and significant others "my boyfriend and I would talk a lot, it was a way to deal with it and possibly find a solution" (Melanie) as a means of managing their feelings of isolation.

Some chose coping methods that involved pro-social behaviour directed towards the source of the ostracism "I tried to participate a little bit [speaking French] and every now and then it would work if I was alone with someone" (Blake). Others, however, chose more anti-social behaviours such as focusing on their cellular phone during periods of ostracism, withdrawing from group interaction "For the week when I would package cheese I would not really talk to anyone, I just keep to myself" (Sanford) or countering their behaviour by spreading rumors or gossip regarding the source "They were teaming up against us so we did the same" (Penny).

Another important reaction to experiences of ostracism in the workplace focused on pretending that it was not happening at all. Feelings of disbelief and confusion urged some individuals to pull away cognitively from the situation. Many chose to keep their

problems a secret from family and friends “I would never want them to know I was having a hard time at work” (Natalie), “No, my family would ask me about my day and I would say it was ok, I didn’t say it was bad because they would ask me why” (Mike). While others would pull away from close relationships and keep their experience a secret “I didn’t really discuss my problems with anyone” (Don).

As ostracism is a behaviour characterized by silence and a lack of equal information distribution, many of the victims felt confused regarding their predicament. Confusion arose regarding why the respondents were singled out by others as confirmed by Penny a call-center employee “What did I do wrong?” and Melanie, an education research associate, “It was something that was difficult to understand, why does someone do this, why is someone envious about me?” These feelings extended beyond simple confusion regarding their treatment and began to affect their ability to process information in their surroundings “For quite a long time I thought that I was going crazy myself, I thought that I was almost imagining it. I can’t believe it I was like shell-shocked that this would happen” (Maya).

These generalized feelings of confusion regarding the treatment they received at the hands of their colleagues over time began to create a sense of helplessness in many of those interviewed. As a result of not knowing the reasons behind their rejection, many felt that there was no way that they could ever regain group membership and, as a result, many felt trapped “There is no escape” (Paul) “ I didn’t know how to get out” (Joan) “I didn’t feel like I had anyone to turn to” (Jen).

Finally, in some instances the treatment received from the source of the ostracism reached a point where the target could no longer stand it and decided to confront the situation either directly or indirectly. In some cases, the target would involve others "It got out of hand and I reported it to HR without discussing it with him [the supervisor]" (Jessica) or confront the source directly "I had a number of conversations with her about her behaviour in social situations as she had publically humiliated me with stuff that she said, like outlandish totally not an ounce of truth stuff" (Paige).

2.4.3 Intentions of Supervisor/Manager

With no research conducted on this particular subject, the current study serves to examine the different ways in which direct supervisors were perceived to have dealt with various ostracism behaviours from the perspective of the target. The first major finding derived from the interviews was the importance placed on discussing their relationships with both their direct supervisor and manager. In nearly every interview, at least two managerial levels of reporting were discussed and could generally be separated into a supervisory and a managerial role. Supervisors were viewed as having more control over the daily attainment of goals and providing or withholding timely and relevant information to subordinates, while managers dealt with more strategic issues and generally had less contact with employees. This served to add more complexity to the original research question regarding the presence and role of direct supervisors as the interviewees felt that it was important their relationships with both their direct supervisor and manager were reported as it pertained to their experience.

This nearly unvarying reply from respondents may be attributed to the fact that the majority of organizations configure themselves based on a hierarchical structure

where individuals often have several managers to whom they report, of varying levels of power over the course of their day. Additionally, as was documented during the interview process, both managers and supervisors had adequate opportunity to observe various workplace interpersonal relationships and the power necessary to take action if they viewed it as necessary to intercede. Respondents were also able to report, with great confidence about whether both their supervisor and manager were aware of their ostracism episode, their intention, be it positive or negative, towards their employees and their general concern for the social relationships within their respective workgroups.

2.4.4 Interventionary Leadership Behaviours

Emergent in the data were three dichotomies regarding the behaviour of the leaders as it pertained to the ostracism experience of the respondents at work. These behaviours were derived from a consistent pattern expressed by the respondents regarding their leaders. Due to the systematic desire by targets to reinforce and validate their experience, each explanation of the role played by the leader included some mention of the extent to which they were aware that their employee felt excluded. This leader awareness or unawareness of any ostracizing behaviours directed at the target became a predominant theme across the remainder of the interview. Contrary to many other forms of counterproductive workplace behaviours, social ostracism is frequently difficult to perceive and often invisible (Robinson, O'Reilly & Wang, 2013). As such, it may be possible that leaders may be completely unaware of any exclusionary activity. In situations where the target brought forward a complaint, but nothing was done, leaders would be considered to be aware of the situation.

One interviewee said: “I had to come to the capital to speak to that nurses board and he [the source of the ostracism] was there, the director was there and in the meeting I said directly to her [the director] ‘you believed every word I told you that day when I quit, didn’t you’ and she put her head down and I said ‘no, you look at me’ and she said that ‘yes I believed.’” This demonstrates the fact that the leader was fully aware of what was happening, but was unwilling to act. On the other hand, another respondent said “My manager doesn’t really know anything about what is going on… she is more or less drowning and she is staying afloat by dealing with what she thinks is a priority.” This quote shows how the leader had absolutely no idea of what was happening in the workgroup as she was completely overwhelmed by her daily tasks and responsibilities.

The second dichotomy is concerned with the perceived intentions of the manager and supervisor. The emergence of this concept derived from the overall affective tone that each employee used when discussing their manager or supervisor in relation to their ostracism experience. Although it is often difficult to gauge the true intentions of individuals, even when asking them directly, many respondents were able to discern at least whether their superiors had positive or negative intentions towards them from a social affiliation standpoint. Even if one is unaware of any ostracism taking place within the group, these leaders can be positively or negatively intentioned. In some cases, leaders were perceived to be positively intentioned such as in the case of Joan “I saw her every day…we would go out to dinner sometimes and she would always praise me”. Others were more negatively intentioned in that they were more interested in their own power than forming close relationships with staff. As Rita put it “She didn’t know the new role…so she played us off one another…She wouldn’t say I was doing good work or

encourage me or anything like that." For those few managers who actively intervened in the ostracism experience of the subordinate, each displayed an overall positive intention to ensure that all employees were treated with respect and dignity

As is often the case, those with the best of intentions are only as effective as their actions, which leads to the third dichotomy of whether leaders take an active or passive role in the social relationships of their followers. The emergence of this third construct came from a thorough narrative analysis of the interviews. An active leader was viewed as one who took a legitimate interest in developing relationships with each member of their workgroup. In addition, proactivity was viewed as a prerequisite for any action taken with regards to the interpersonal conflict denoted in the interview, while passivity was seen as a desire not to get involved and to do as little as possible in terms of interventions. As such, the extent to which each supervisor or manager was seen as active or passive comes only from the employee's perceived level of leader involvement in the social dynamic of the workgroup.

Active individuals who took an interest in the social environment of their work group could also take advantage of this information for their own personal gain and amusement as demonstrated by Paige "My supervisor (laugh) was always around, she was a very narcissistic negative person who was always playing us against one another." Passive individuals, on the other hand, often concern themselves with other matters or are not willing to create any major issues that would upend the status quo. This was demonstrated by Don's leader "She was pretty laissez-faire; she would make sure things were basically on track."

From this set of three leadership dimensions, a total of seven leader profiles were derived from the data. All seven of these profiles were present within the data and each served to refine the various leadership approaches that were taken during instances of workplace ostracism. Table 1 was created to provide a visual means of examining the ways in which targets perceived those with higher power as behaving in workplace ostracism situations. The table shows all possible combinations of leader behaviours in a matrix format. For example, if a manager was perceived as being aware, active and positively intentioned with regards to the ostracism experience, they are viewed as an intervener as their awareness of the situation and desire to act in a positive manner drives the leader to improve the situation of their victimized subordinate.

The remaining profiles derived from the data include being an Initiator (aware, active and negatively intentioned) or leaders who are viewed as the instigator from the perspective of the target. Inclusionary leaders (unaware, active and positively intentioned) are leaders who display openness and embrace all members of their workgroup without necessarily seeing anything being amiss. Exclusionary leaders (unaware, active and negatively intentioned) choose to exclude others, but do it alone; Hesitant/Powerless leaders (aware, passive and positively intentioned) have the best of intentions, but as a result of fear or lack of power or lack of competence, choose not to intervene. Next, Complicit leaders (aware, passive and negatively intentioned) are aware of what is occurring and implicitly condone the action, but do not involve themselves in the actual negative treatment. Finally, with Oblivious/Uninterested leaders (unaware, passive and positively/negatively intentioned), their intentions make no difference as they

have absolutely no idea that anything is going on in their workgroup in terms of interpersonal mistreatment.

Embedded in this taxonomy of leader relational interventionary behaviours is the notion that leaders can play an integral role in the prevention or promotion of interpersonal conflict within their workgroup. Although it is only one of a variety of factors, the results of the interviews place it as one that is both important and particularly notable with the move in the literature towards greater emphasis on more employee-centric forms of leadership (e.g., ethical leadership; Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005). Table 2 presents how each of the thirty participants rated their supervisors and managers according to the seven hypothesized behavioural profiles.

2.4.5 Personal Costs

The most striking and focused aspect of each interview occurred when the respondents discussed the personal costs that being excluded had on them. This was also the portion of the interview when the respondents would become upset and several began either to cry or become visibly distraught. There were several notable examples where respondents were forced to take a break in the recounting of their story in an effort to regain composure. This helped to emphasize the point that these experiences are extremely emotional and their effects have a lasting impact on targets. A particularly poignant example came from Alyssa, an employee of a charity. She became so distraught after being ostracized by her supervisor that she "had a breakdown, I was crying all the time" and "would leave work crying for about a month straight." As crying has been shown to be an effective form of managing stress during traumatic situations (Labott & Martin, 1987), we considered crying to be a particularly important coping mechanism.

Beyond the obvious emotion during the retelling process, individual costs varied significantly; however, they could be classified as being health related including mental "It was just horrible anxiety. I would have panic attacks going to work" (Alyssa) and physical well-being "My eyes were twitching all of the time for 2 months, every day. I had constant headaches and I wasn't ok" (Penny), feeling emotionally and physically drained and depressed "I was just miserable, or a miserable person to be around" (Allison), "It was kind of depressing, you go to work every day and do the same stuff every day" (Joan) "I pretty much was completely exhausted" (Natalie). There was also a decline in their overall mood as typified by the following statements "It made me feel frustrated most of all" (Beth); "It's just like, a crusher" (Camilla); "I was bitter that this happened to me and I had to start all over again at a new job" (Maya) and heightened stress associated with being ostracized "I was so stressed" (Andy).

2.4.6 Organizational Cost

Most of the respondents discussed how their work had suffered in at least one of four ways. These included actually leaving their job or having intentions to turnover "At some point I was just like, should I just quit?" (Allison), lowered levels of commitment to the organization "I was not interested in working with them again" (Beth), decreased satisfaction with their job "I really didn't want to go, it wasn't a fun place for me" (Gail) and how their treatment affected their ability to perform their jobs effectively "It became really tense and I became very nervous…if I didn't do it their way they would get very frustrated" (Gail).

2.5 Code Integration

2.5.1 Perceived Reason for Ostracism

Upon reviewing the transcripts, several commonalities were found when it came to how interviewees rationalized their experience and how they were treated. Using the ostracism reported behaviours in addition to the attributions made by the targets regarding their treatment at work, the lead author and second coder reached a consensus on a series of broader themes that emerged and which focused on perceived reasons for workplace ostracism. The results of the general patterns that emerged from the various ostracism classifications are shown in Table 3.

In sum, six larger perceived reasons for ostracism, which served as classifications, emerged from the data. In some cases, individuals were placed in more than one category as they were ostracized by distinct groups within the same organization. The first of these six reasons comprised systematic efforts from organizational members to *silence or discredit* the target in an effort to discourage them from reporting, filing a complaint or whistleblowing to upper management. The second classification encompassed individuals who were ostracized because of their inability to speak a particular language, whereby targets were unable to follow conversations with group members who spoke a language that they did not understand. All individuals who reported this type of behaviour were placed in the "*foreign language*" category. Thirdly, members experienced ostracism because they were viewed as an *outsider* to the group. The key distinction between the *foreign language* and the *outsider* group is the means by which they felt ostracized. *Outsiders* felt excluded predominantly through silence and isolation, while those in the

foreign language group felt excluded through exposure to a language that they did not understand.

Individuals who self-identified as a *threat* to some member of their group and were ostracized were included in the fourth group. Finally, anyone who disclosed observing other members of their workgroup being ostracized was placed in the *observer* group. Although the participant may not have been directly involved unlike the other five groups, it does require awareness on the part of the target and is considered a potentially important issue in the study of ostracism at work. As such, it will be included in the final analysis, but is not considered to be a direct experience of workplace ostracism. It is upon these six classifications that we base our final analysis.

2.5.2 Direct Supervisors and Manager Behaviour

As the majority of interviewees discussed the behaviour of both a supervisor and manager, we explored each of the six classifications of ostracism behaviour for commonalities in leader behaviour. Members of the silencing/discrediting ostracism group reached consensus regarding only one leader behaviour. In all cases, the supervisor was aware that one of their subordinates was being ostracized. In all cases, some inappropriate behaviour was taking place within the organization including illegal or sexually inappropriate behaviours directed towards patients or the organization as a whole. As such, there was a belief that the supervisor or other employees were trying to stifle any word getting out by isolating the target and discrediting him or her in a way that was either implicitly or explicitly condoned by the supervisor.

Language-based ostracism often took place in areas outside of normal working hours, such as breaks, during lunch and after work engagements. As such, direct supervisors did not seem to concern themselves overly with this type of behaviour. All five members who discussed how they were excluded by means of a *foreign language* discussed how their supervisors acted in a very passive manner in this regard. As Blake added about his supervisor "She wasn't babysitting me, you know?" In terms of the managers, all were considered positively intentioned and attempted to make the target feel included with varying levels of success.

Those in the *outsider* group had much more variety in their responses, yet the one commonality among the eleven members was how all direct supervisors were negatively intentioned towards their employees. The majority of the supervisors were considered to be initiators of the behaviour while a few chose to be complicit when others socially excluded a fellow co-worker. These complicit supervisors were either too occupied with their own work or simply did not care about what was going on around them. In terms of the managers, however, an overall passive trend was found across interviews. This suggests that in a situation where an individual does not seem to "fit", supervisors are more actively involved than their higher-level counterparts due to the fact that they have more daily contact with their direct reports.

Members of the *threat* group were generally perceived as a danger by the direct supervisor and as such, the supervisor was the one who initiated the exclusion in order to gain the support of their other followers and ensure that they all acted to ostracize the target. This perception of threat, however, came from different places depending on the case. Paul was considered a threat because he questioned the directives of his female

supervisor repeatedly while Joan was considered to be a friend of the manager whose position the supervisor was attempting to take and as such had to be excluded from all plans, lest any information leak back to the manager. In all cases, the manager was oblivious or uninterested in the exclusionary behaviour taking place within their workgroup.

Finally, to nearly half of the respondents who observed ostracism taking place within their organization beyond their own experiences, the only leadership behaviour that was consistent was a systematic passive and hands off outlook on employee treatment by managers. This lack of oversight ensured that victims of ostracism would not feel protected and that these negative interpersonal behaviours could spread to others across the workgroup. This finding suggests that in a significant number of cases, ostracism was intentionally used as a tactic to further some goal. As such, those who were diametrically opposed to this goal were treated in a similar manner. A positive result of this, however, was that targets often banded together in an effort to receive some social support with those who were experiencing similar issues.

Looking at the overall behavioural breakdown of both supervisor and managers across all interviews, some notable differences were found. Overwhelmingly, supervisors were most likely to be perceived as the initiator by interviewees as this was the predominant case in almost 47% of interviews. This was followed by oblivious/uninterested behaviour being embodied by only 17% of supervisors. Managers, conversely, were perceived to be oblivious/uninterested to the interpersonal dynamics occurring within their workgroup in an equally high 46% of cases, while

hesitant/powerless profiles were observed in 19% cases. A full breakdown of all profiles exhibited by supervisors and managers can be seen in Table 4.

2.5.3 Perceived Reason for Ostracism and Outcomes

Upon close analysis of the data, each ostracism profile displayed its own set of outcomes. In addition to these similarities within groups, there was a variety of coping methods as well as personal and organizational costs associated with each ostracism rationale. In this section we examine the commonalities inherent within each of the five major ostracism classifications and discuss some of the key themes in greater detail.

Targets who self-identified as being *silenced or discredited* felt a collective sense that working for their organization was no longer in their best interest in addition to an overall negative mood regarding their work situation. As many of them felt so negatively about their experience, this often translated into conversations about them breaking down emotionally both at work and during the interview. As a result, they chose to seek social support from co-workers in an effort to reduce their feelings of isolation, while attempting to develop potential allies.

Those who claimed to be ostracized based on a *foreign language* often looked upon their organization poorly, which translated into statements pertaining to both low job satisfaction and commitment. Although there was no trend regarding a consistent personal cost associated with linguistic ostracism, a consistent finding was found with regards to their coping strategy. In all cases, respondents reported that they first acted pro-socially towards those who ostracized them in an effort to gain group acceptance, however, after a period of time where their positive actions garnered no results, they

began acting anti-socially by self-ostracizing or acting aggressively towards the initiators of this behaviour.

Workers who felt like *outsiders* in their workgroups felt both depressed, stressed and in a negative mood when discussing their work. In addition, this also translated into a variety of mental and physical health issues. As a result, many reacted anti-socially in response to their treatment as many felt that they were never given a fair chance to integrate themselves, nor would they ever be given an opportunity. This is consistent with research by Thau et al. (2007) where employees who had their need to belong thwarted were more likely to engage in interpersonally harmful or anti-social behaviour. An additional method to cope with their treatment was to find coworkers either inside or outside their group to help them with their plight. All of this stress associated with being an *outsider* contributed to a significant organizational cost as well as with an increased desire of all members to leave their job, paired with low commitment and job satisfaction.

The outcomes described by the *threat* group were very similar to those of the *outsider* group with a few key exceptions. Although all of the personal costs were exactly the same, these groups sought out help in different ways. Rather than relying on coworkers, members in the threat group turned to family and friends for support. In addition, all members discussed how this experience made them cry and many used it as a coping mechanism to deal with the stress involved in working in this environment. Although there was no consistency in terms of turnover, *threat* group members reported decreased job satisfaction and commitment.

Finally, two themes emerged from the *observed* ostracism classification. Individuals who experienced ostracism in addition to observing it happen to others all sought social support from this additional target. This could only be viewed as a means of gaining an ally with which they could face the experience together. This was often viewed as a very positive experience where the victims would share personal experiences as well as take part in activities together including going out for lunch and exercising together. Additionally, all members who reported observing ostracism also experienced a great deal of stress at work. This could be attributed to the fact that as more than one person was singled out by the group, the work environment was viewed as menacing since the data indicated that this form of negative interpersonal treatment was more systematic as evidenced in the interviews.

Table 5 presents a breakdown of each of the five ostracism classifications and the five major themes derived from the analysis of the data. This table displays some important similarities and differences among the six ostracism classifications regarding leadership, ostracism behaviours, interpersonal dynamic complexity, coping methods and costs associated with their experience. In addition to these findings there were a few themes that were not classified in Table 5, yet are worth noting.

An interesting outcome from the interviews was to explore what happened when individuals who were ostracized by group members were forced to interact with them in more formal settings such as group meetings. Some described it as polite "Well, everyone was civil, as I said; it was really not an overt thing" (Don), while others loathed interactions with the source "We said what we had to say about the patients, nothing more than that. As little as possible, it just made for a horrible day and you were

in the same room for 12 hours straight." (Maya). Although no trend was found, a significant amount of those sampled brought up these interactions as an important part of their experience.

An additional coping mechanism where no consistency was found was social withdrawal. Rather than acting in an anti-social manner within the workgroup, many individuals chose to withdraw from their external sources of support in an effort to try and avoid any discussion of what was occurring with them at work. Some would simply avoid speaking about their work "I went home and would not talk about it" (Amanda), "I don't really discuss my problems with anyone" (Don). Others would deflect or even lie about their experience at work "No, my family would ask me about my day and I would say it was ok, I didn't say it was bad because they would ask me why, I just said it was ok so they wouldn't question me" (Mike). While no trend was found, with regards to the ostracism classifications described above, social withdrawal was a coping mechanism used predominantly by the males in the current sample.

On the work performance front, participants mentioned how their negative experience at work had a direct and negative influence on their performance "I wasn't functioning very well" (Rita) "The problem was that because there was this negative energy surrounding me I was making mistakes that I wouldn't normally be making and it was kind of a self-fulfilling prophecy" (Jen). Others, on the other hand, found that their performance was negatively affected because of their relationships with others "It [my relationship with my supervisor] affected my performance evaluation for sure"

2.6 Study 1 Discussion

The current study attempts to delve deeply into experiences of workplace ostracism in an effort to gain a greater understanding of this phenomenon, while at the same time shining a light on the impact that workplace isolation experiences have on individuals. Although there is a growing literature on workplace ostracism (Ferris et al., 2008; Robinson, O'Reilly & Wang, 2013), this is the first detailed study on the impact that leadership has on experiences of workplace ostracism. By conducting interviews with a sample of thirty employees from a diverse array of backgrounds and industries, these findings lead to several interesting conclusions.

Although the primary objective of this study was to explore the negative effects of workplace ostracism on employee well-being, what emerged from these results was much larger and is applicable across organizations. This emergent finding highlighted the importance of supervisors and managers in the overall narratives of employee ostracism experiences and their overall perceptions of their work. The current study highlights how leaders' decision to intervene contributes in a meaningful way to a variety of outcomes to the target and the organization as a whole. This is further highlighted by a series of three important leadership behavioural dimensions that emerged from the data. These behaviours focused on three distinct behavioural characteristics including proactivity, awareness and intentionality, each of which focused on the leader's perceived involvement in the social dynamic of their subordinates. As part of their role, leaders are tasked with ensuring that their group functions effectively at all levels. The current study explores a distinct aspect of group effectiveness by demonstrating the importance of effectively handling interpersonal issues that arise within workgroups.

We contribute to the leadership literature by arguing that supervisors and managers play important, but different, roles in the promotion or prevention of workplace ostracism. Rather than simply focusing on ensuring that the group reaches its goals, the results indicate the importance for leaders to remain cognizant of the interpersonal dynamic within their workgroup, acting to identify disagreements and having the will to intervene in a positive manner. As is demonstrated in the majority of these cases, there was often a significant failure on the part of organizational leaders to diagnose and rectify the situation before the working climate becomes toxic.

As no single leadership theory has ever examined how leaders go about evaluating and monitoring the internal relational environment of their workgroup, we will examine the extant leadership literature to examine how components of various leadership theories can be brought together to strengthen the theoretical underpinning of this taxonomy. Furthermore, this review will explore how these behaviours function in organizations and propose other constructs that may aid in the future conceptual development of this model of leader behaviour. To do this, we will explore each end of the three continua. This will be undertaken by examining proximal theories for each pole of the three dimensions (aware/unaware; active/passive; positively/negatively intentioned), which will help not only strengthen the rationale behind this taxonomy, but will aid in the eventual development of a scale to assess relational leadership interventionary behaviour.

2.6.1 Aware Leadership Behaviour

Research on transformational leadership has received significant attention from scholars since it was first introduced by Bass (1985). It asserts that, through various

behaviours, leaders engage their subordinates in a manner that motivates them beyond their own personal interest and helps them focus on the needs of the collective. Transformational leadership occurs when leaders emphasize "the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group" (Bass, 1990, p.21).

In addition to being highly attuned to the needs of the team, transformational leaders must also be aware of the personal values of their followers. Using those values, they reinforce these deeply held beliefs in their subordinates in order to support the vision and goals of the organization (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders require not only an awareness of the needs of both their subordinates and organization, but also a heightened awareness of issues that may inhibit their subordinates from working at maximum efficiency (Bass, 1985). These issues can range from small interpersonal issues among subordinates to major changes in the competitive environment. As such, transformational leaders systematically scan their environment (Limerick, Passfield & Cunnington, 1994) for issues that may affect the realization of their vision.

Transformational leaders, as a result of this constant scanning and interest in the well-being of their subordinates, will be much more likely to pick up on relational issues among their employees. The reason for this is partly because these issues may pose a threat to the realization of their vision, but also in part because of their genuine concern for their employees. As such, the often ambiguous and veiled behaviours that make up workplace ostracism are likely to be more effectively detected and rationalized by a leader who places an emphasis on picking up on minute changes in the social environment of their workgroup.

Leaders who are aware of the social dynamics of their respective workgroups are anticipated to be much more likely to detect concealed counterproductive workplace behaviours including, but not limited to, social ostracism. Furthermore, this ability to constantly scan the environment for issues will be viewed positively by direct reports as it shows legitimate caring for the happiness and well-being of all team members. Weisband (2002) found that leaders who were aware and considerate of the work and personal lives of their members improved the success levels of their virtual teams. As a result of this desire to improve the overall welfare of their subordinates, aware leaders will be much more likely to perceive and potentially aid targeted employees, relative to their unaware counterparts.

2.6.2 Unaware Leadership Behaviour

As a result of the potential status and reward power benefits inherent to positions of leadership, some managers may use these resources to drive their own personal agenda forward without any concern for those they have been tasked to lead. Narcissism, which is defined as a personality trait that encompasses a high motivation for power and self-aggrandizement, has been associated with leaders who focus on their own personal and career progression, often at the expense of their subordinates (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Although there has been some disagreement as to what constitutes a narcissistic leader, scholars agree that these leaders are driven by their own egotistical needs (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1997), self-absorption and general egocentricity (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Narcissistic leaders often resist any suggestions originating from colleagues, take credit for successes that are not their own and blame others for any failures that may arise (Hogan, Raskin & Fazzini, 1990).

These leaders are often unaware of workplace issues that do not directly affect their career progression. These personal lapses make it apparent to subordinates that their interests are of little concern to the leader. In fact, Kramer (2003) suggests that narcissistic leaders, in an effort to improve their leadership abilities, must work hard to reflect on their decisions, pinpoint and develop their weaknesses, and maintain a greater sense of awareness. With narcissistic leaders being so absorbed in their own wants and needs, they are likely to be ignorant or unaware of what is truly occurring around them (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). As a result, those in the workplace who wish to commit acts of counterproductive workplace behaviour will be more emboldened to act without fear of reprimand as long as they nurture their leader's ego.

A similarly negative behaviour that narcissistic leaders exhibit in addition to their inability to be aware of their environmental surroundings is their lack of empathetic concern for their subordinates. This absence of employee consideration runs counter to many scholars' view on good leadership (e.g., Choi, 2006; Skinner & Spurgeon, 2005). Being unaware of the feelings and emotions of one's coworkers is viewed as destructive because it signals to employees that they are unworthy of notice. With the growing importance of collaborative work (Eagle, 2004), perspective-taking (Wolff, Pescosolido & Druskat, 2002) and interpersonal skills at work (Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall, & Salovey, 2006; Rapisarda, 2002), leaders who remain unaware of the emotional and relational issues of their direct reports are anticipated to contribute negatively to the overall effectiveness of the team through the creation of an environment where employees do not feel fully supported.

As opposed to their more personally aware counterparts, unaware leaders have little concern for the emotional welfare of their employees. This lack of empathic concern will be unfavourably viewed by their employees. Unaware leaders will have a more difficult time observing negative interpersonal behaviours in the workplace as their focus will often be directed inwards. Additionally, unaware leaders will be much less likely to perceive and potentially intervene in targeted negative acts against employees under their supervision.

2.6.3 Proactive Leadership behaviour

Of the four major transformational leadership behaviours described by Bass (1985), the one that focuses most on meeting or exceeding the needs of subordinates is that of individualized consideration. Individually considerate leaders pay particular attention to these needs through the development of strong exchange relationships with their followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006). This behaviour has been argued to be one of the prime differentiators between transformational and more transaction-based leadership styles (Avolio & Bass, 1995), as the focus is less on the actual task to be accomplished and more on developing the individual who is accomplishing it. As a result of this, these leaders base their interactions more on the interest of others and their team as a whole than on their own self-interest.

Individually considerate leaders regard each individual as unique, with his or her own set of abilities and needs. As such, these leaders actively demonstrate their acceptance through two-way communication and providing support and direction (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1998). The current conceptualization of individually considerate leaders is to actively engage their employees through the creation of a supportive climate

where tasks are adapted to each employee's strengths and needs, while at the same time developing follower skills and self-efficacy (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1998).

Rafferty and Griffin (2006) recently suggested that there is a distinction between supportive and developmental aspects of individualized consideration. They consider leaders as supportive when they express concern for, and take into account, followers' needs and preferences when making decisions. Rafferty and Griffin (2006) define developmental leadership as the leader's ability to improve upon pre-existing skills and abilities in a way that is beneficial to the subordinate and supportive leadership as behaviour that "sponsors, exposes, coaches, protects and provides challenging assignments to their subordinates" (p. 39). Their investigation found that developmental and supportive leadership are empirically distinct, yet highly correlated constructs. Furthermore, developmental leadership accounted for additional variance over and above supportive leadership in a variety of workplace outcomes including job satisfaction and affective commitment. As stated by the authors, the ability of leaders to actively provide coaching and training to employees was found to lead to a variety of positive outcomes for employees and organization alike (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006).

Individual proactivity is viewed as a key component of social cognitive learning theory (Bandura, 1977). As the person, the environment and their behaviours continually work in conjunction to influence each other, Bandura (1986) posited that situations are as much a function of the person as the reverse (Schneider, 1983). As such, proactivity, or a strong drive towards action, plays an important role in shaping situations. This notion is supported in our findings as proactive interventionary behaviours on the part of the leader played an integral role in shaping each workgroup, regardless of whether it was perceived

as positive or not. The limited amount of research on proactive leadership behaviour has stated that it, for the most part, leads to positive outcomes (e.g., Crant & Bateman, 2000; Deluga, 1998). Although this finding was confirmed in some cases, there was also the perception by many participants that the personal initiative taken by their leader was not in their best interests. In fact, a high level of proactivity was a key component of both the intervener and initiator profiles, which were viewed as the beneficial and destructive profiles respectively in terms of subordinate outcomes. This suggests that an additional factor of intentions should be considered in future studies in order to get at the motives behind influencing their environments.

In the realm of political science, this will to intervene is cited as an important pre-requisite for mobilizing political efforts to halt international mass atrocities (Chalk, Dallaire, Matthews, Barqueiro, & Doyle, 2010) by standing up for members of their team when others are unwilling. A will to intervene requires a moral belief that all group members deserve to be treated in a just manner and that leaders may be called upon to sacrifice themselves to demonstrate this belief. This self-sacrificing behaviour on the part of the leader has been shown to have a positive effect on team cooperation (De Creamer & van Knippenberg, 2005) and perceived leader effectiveness (De Creamer & van Knippenberg, 2005; van Knippenberg, & van Knippenberg, 2005).

With individually considerate leaders being so actively engaged with the needs and desires of their employees, it is anticipated that they will be more likely to notice when one or more members of their workgroup are being ostracized at work. With their general tendency to act in a supportive and developmental way, these leaders are likely to intervene if they feel that this behaviour is adversely affecting their subordinates. This

predisposition towards protecting one's employees is often discussed in the mentoring literature (e.g., Kram, 1983) and is likely to occur when the leader takes an active interest in the well-being of the ostracized employee. As such, active leaders are likely to both help the target through a difficult interpersonal time by using supportive behaviours, while at the same time actively intervening in this type of bullying behaviour. Caution must be used with the proactive construct, however, as many targets reported their leader playing an active role in their perceived mistreatment. As such, the proactive construct must be interpreted with caution.

2.6.4 Passive Leadership Behaviour

Both transformational and transactional leaders actively involve themselves in trying to engage in problems directly and intervene on behalf of their subordinates. These behaviours, however, are contrasted with the exceptionally passive approach taken by laissez-faire leaders (Bass, 1985). Considered to be on the farthest end of the full range leadership model originally proposed by Bass (1985), laissez-faire leadership describes an inactive and ineffective leader who avoids performing his or her duties at any cost. The result of this type of inactive style of leadership behaviour is subordinates who are left feeling as though their personal well-being is of little importance to the leader. In addition to their indifference, laissez-faire leaders are unlikely to motivate their employees or take any initiative to bring about positive change (Barling, Kelloway, & Frone, 2005).

More generally, scholars have gone so far as to theorize that the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass, 1985), a measure used to gauge transformational and transactional leadership behaviours, could be better represented using two factors, the

first being active leadership, which includes all transformational leadership, management-by-exception active and contingent reward items, and the second, passive leadership, which consists of management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire behaviours (Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995). This view of leadership has been further confirmed by Den Hartog, Van Muijen and Koopman (1997) who found two-factors consisting of active and passive leadership.

In terms of social ostracism, passive leaders may exacerbate the target's negative perceptions because they avoid taking responsibility and fail to provide the necessary resources to effectively accomplish organizational objectives, in addition to avoiding interacting with their subordinates as much as possible. This desire to evade making decisions has been shown to be related to a variety of negative employee safety and stress outcomes (Kelloway et al., 2004). By continually evading their employees as well as their responsibilities, the avoidant behaviour demonstrated by these leaders can be viewed as inherently ostracizing. Ostracism, regardless of the source, has been demonstrated to threaten a variety of employee needs, including their need to belong as well as their self-esteem (Williams, 2001). As such, this type of behaviour is expected to have negative effects on the perceptions of ostracism at work, both in terms of employees' interaction with the leader and the understanding that the leader may not be available during times where interventions are necessary.

2.6.5 Positively Intentioned Leadership Behaviour

One of the most important aspects of leadership behaviour when it comes to the way in which leaders interact with their subordinates is the perceived intention behind their actions. If leaders are positively intentioned, they go out of their way to make sure

that the needs of their direct reports are met in an equitable and efficient fashion. Contrarily, when leaders fail to intervene in a positive way, the outcomes are often destructive for both the employee and organization alike.

Servant leaders focus on the wants and desires of their subordinates, with the objective to meet these needs through altruistic actions and service (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). Rather than relying on charisma, servant leaders gain the majority of their influence through their generous actions and sacrifice (Russell & Stone, 2002). These positively intentioned behaviours directed at their followers enable direct reports to be much more autonomous in the completion of their work and demonstrates implicit trust in subordinates. It is this focus on developing and fostering follower relationships that is hypothesized to generate such positive organizational work outcomes (Lubin, 2001).

When examining the difference between transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) and servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977), many would argue that they are basically the same concept. What differentiates servant leadership from transformational leadership, according to Russell and Stone (2002), is its focus. Transformational leaders focus on transcending the self-interest of individual members for the good of the collective (Bass, 1997). At its heart, transformational leadership serves to build goal commitment through actively engaging and encouraging followers to achieve the goals that they have set out to accomplish (Yukl, 1998). Servant leadership, on the other hand, focuses on positive reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), whereby the positive actions directed at their subordinates encourage followers to respond by serving not the leader but those around them (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004).

Servant leaders are anticipated to be highly engaged with their employees and demonstrate authentic caring for those that work for them. As servant leaders focus predominately on placing the needs of their employees first, it is anticipated that negative workplace behaviours such as workplace ostracism and bullying would be dealt with immediately and with great care. As such, these positive intentions on the part of the leader will be viewed positively and serve to create an environment where exclusionary behaviours are viewed negatively.

Although the transformational leadership behaviours of idealized influence, intellectual stimulation and particularly individualized consideration (Bass, 1985) complement the definition of servant leadership, Van Dierendonck (2011) argues in a recent review that it is in the idealized influence aspect of transformational leadership where the two theories deviate. He contends that the intentions behind idealized influence are unclear and likely not subordinate-serving. As opposed to being completely loyal to their subordinates, transformational leaders also have a powerful allegiance to their organization, which may skew the way in which they behave. This possibility may lead subordinates to be manipulated in order to reach the goals of the leader and the organization, rather than those the subordinates think are important.

2.6.6 Negatively Intentioned Leadership Behaviour

Abusive leadership is defined as the "sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). This type of destructive leadership has been shown to lead to a variety of negative personal and organizational outcomes, including problem drinking (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006) and organizational deviance (Tepper et al., 2009; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, &

Duffy, 2008). One of the main mechanisms by which abusive supervisors have a negative effect on their employees is through hostility. Hostility involves actively being antagonistic to a target and can present itself in a variety of ways including tantrums, rudeness and public criticism (Bies & Tripp, 1998). These negatively intentioned behaviours create an undesirable working environment and are likely to create highly dysfunctional inter-group relationships (Tepper, 2000; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002).

Abusive supervisors, in addition to creating a negative working environment, have been shown to create a vicious cycle of deviance. This negative leadership behaviour was found to be related to both supervisor and peer-directed deviance including directing hurtful words to colleagues and acting rudely (Tepper et al., 2008). This relationship is further exacerbated by subordinates who use retribution as a response to negative treatment (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). This vicious cycle of negatively intentioned leader behaviour and subordinate deviance is likely to cause a variety of cohesion problems within the workgroup.

As such, leaders who are likely to engage in destructive behaviours directed at their employees are anticipated to aid in the creation of ostracism targets or may be treated like ancient Athenian tyrants (Kagan, 1961) and ostracized by their subordinates for their unsupportive and threatening behaviour. The latter may prove to be more difficult, however as the group must act as a cohesive unit, even under the threat of leader retaliation. As a result of this, it is expected that leaders with negative intentions will be much more likely to be the initiators of the ostracizing behaviour and personally select individuals who pose the most threat to their grasp on power.

As work plays such a focal role in the lives of many, and considering the critical importance of the supervisor-employee relationship in determining job satisfaction (Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982; Janssen & Van Ypren, 2004), abusive supervision is extremely threatening to one's self-esteem (Leary et al., 1995). As a result, victims of abusive supervisors are likely to attempt to elevate their self-esteem through validation seeking behaviour designed to restore their sense of self. With such importance placed on restoring one's sense of self, employees may attempt anything that might improve the way in which their supervisor perceives them without thought for the consequences that they might have on others. Consequently, these employees may act as cronies for their supervisor and follow along with ostracizing behaviours against other targets for the sole purpose of regaining group membership and self-esteem.

We provide additional credence to this finding by suggesting that leaders have the capacity to exert a tremendous amount of influence over the interpersonal dynamics of their respective workgroups. In many ways, leaders are able to set the tone for how individuals treat one another by displaying what is allowable in terms of behaviours and what is not. This finding is consistent with the work of Sy, Côté and Saavedra (2005), who found that the mood of the leader is transferred to both individual emotions and the group's overall affective tone. In addition, positive leader intentions have been found to be related to a positive group climate and reduced conflict (Kivlighan & Tarrant, 2001). This suggests that leaders, through legitimate power, are imparted with an ability to mould the working context in a way that matches the way in which they believe the team should operate.

We also identify how, in many organizations, leaders are given a significant amount of behavioural leeway with which to exert their own relational interventionary philosophy on their workgroup. Indeed, intervening in interpersonal dynamics is both a portion of their role that is not compensated and is often unsupervised by upper management. As the decision to intervene in the interpersonal conflicts of group members is largely discretionary, particularly in the case of covert undermining behaviours such as workplace ostracism, leaders are able to manage these issues in the manner that they see fit. This is consistent with Mischel's (1977) concept of weak situations where managers who were aware of the incidence of ostracism in their team were given a tremendous amount of decisional flexibility with which to develop a strategy, or lack thereof, to manage under these circumstances.

2.6.7 Contributions

The results indicate that the act of being isolated or excluded in the presence of others in the workplace is not viewed as a similar experience by all, but can be interpreted in a variety of different ways depending on both personal and situational factors. The current research creates an initial taxonomy of perceptions regarding why targets feel ostracized. This merges the social and workplace ostracism literatures in two ways. First, we provide the first narrative exploration of workplace ostracism experiences. As ostracism experiences have been shown to be inherently aversive and memorable (e.g., Lau, Moulds, & Richardson, 2009), all victims were able to create a coherent and vivid account of how they were treated. Secondly, we provide evidence for the presence of a variety of divergent theorized ostracism behaviours in the work context including: social ostracism (Williams & Sommers, 1997), physical ostracism (Williams,

2001), language exclusion (Dotan-Eliaz, et al., 2009), information exclusion (Jones et al., 2010), and observed ostracism (Wesselmann, Bagg, & Williams, 2009). From these extremely detailed and rich retellings of workplace ostracism experiences, six distinct ostracism classifications were derived, each with their own set of negative consequences for both individuals and organizations. This preliminary examination serves to expand the current thinking of workplace ostracism (Robinson, O'Reilly & Wang, 2013) to include more than one form of excluding behaviour when examining the construct in organizations.

Although participants differed in the type of ostracism experienced, all reported this experience to be both unsettling and painful, as is demonstrated consistently in the literature (Eisenberger & Liberman, 2004). In an effort to deal with the painful experience of being ostracized, a variety of coping mechanisms were implemented including anti and pro-social behaviours, emotional release and searching for social support from a diverse set of sources. These coping actions follow closely with theorized reactions of ostracized individuals in experiments. According to the temporal need-threat model of ostracism (Williams, 2009b), ostracism identification is a process that unfolds over three distinct temporal stages. In the first stage termed the "*reflective stage*" targets go through a cognitive appraisal immediately after perceiving that they are being ostracized and try to identify why this might be happening. From here, targets in the *reflective stage* choose between one of four major coping reactions including fight or aggressing, flight which means to flee the situation, befriend the source or sources of the ostracism, or freeze, which means to do nothing. We found the similar reactions in our sample of participants. The fight response was characterized by anti-social behaviour

such as aggression and befriending the source was characterized by pro-social behaviours. Some chose the flight response by leaving their job. Finally, freeze was characterized by feeling confused and incapacitated. We could not, however, examine the *resignation* stage, which focuses on the long-term effects of ostracism as our interviews all took place at once.

Being ostracized is considered one of the most painful interpersonal experiences, likened often to social death (Williams, 2007b). It can be viewed as a form of aggression, which is defined as "any behaviour directed towards another person or persons with the intent to harm" (Aquino & Thau, 2009, p. 718). As such, the vast majority of these cases both constitute and are perceived as victimization as targets feel exposed to aggressive acts by one or more individuals (Aquino et al., 1999). We further explore this by showing how ostracism experiences have the ability to cause a wide variety of negative personal and organizational outcomes including reductions in performance, satisfaction and commitment in addition to increased turnover intentions. Consequently, future research should examine how various forms of leadership behaviour, including the above mentioned leader relational interventionary behaviour, may enable or inhibit the perception of employee victimization.

This initial qualitative study in the area of leadership and workplace ostracism has demonstrated that leaders have an important role to play in the pervasiveness of ostracism at work and a taxonomy is proposed of specific behaviours related to this process. A large amount of research has demonstrated the importance of managing interpersonal processes within groups (e.g., Rahim, 2010) and the current study builds on this literature in a meaningful way by suggesting that leaders play an important role in the effective

management of interpersonal workgroup processes throughout the life of the team or work unit and also believe that these leadership behaviours affect subordinates across a variety of situations. As such, managers should take steps to ensure that they behave in a way that is inclusive and just towards all members of their group.

The literature on managing interpersonal conflict has begun to examine a variety of methods to reducing its prevalence in teams including developing a shared sense of psychological safety, defined as a common belief that the group is a safe place to take interpersonal risk (Edmonson, 1999). In addition, research has begun to explore how different conflict management styles function in different contexts and establishing conditions to reduce the likelihood of conflict (e.g., Marks et al., 2001). There has been some research to support these findings as a recent study demonstrated that supervisor's transformational leadership improved the conflict management styles of subordinates in a sample of Chinese employees (Zhang et al., 2011), suggesting that leaders can be an important catalyst for improved interpersonal relations within their respective teams. In sum, the current study reinforces the need for preemptive conflict management (Marks et al., 2001). As a work team structure provides a context where conflict is likely to occur and efforts to reduce it are made (Jehn, 1995), we show that proper management of this conflict before it occurs can serve to reduce workgroup ostracism.

2.6.8 Research Implications

Beyond simply examining negative behaviours, the results of Study 1 suggest that employees who work under a leader displaying constructive relational leadership interventionary behaviours (i.e., identifying and reacting to conflict between coworkers) are likely to feel more satisfied with their work and better supported. Based on the norm

of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), subordinates who feel that their supervisor is aware of the workgroup social environment, active in ensuring that members are interacting well with one another and treats all members equally may also act in kind and produce a virtuous cycle of interpersonal supporting behaviours within the workgroup.

An additional positive note stemming from this research comes from the expectation that these relational interpersonal leadership behaviours can be trained. Much like training interventions of transformational leadership (e.g., Barling, et al., 1999; Mullen & Kelloway, 2009), training focused on improving the ability of leaders to manage conflict in their respective teams and intervene if necessary would be behaviour based, and as such, would be more likely to succeed (Frese, Beimel & Schonborn, 2003; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Using training workshops and coaching sessions focused on delivering feedback to leaders as demonstrated by Bass (1990), in addition to reinforcing the importance of the interpersonal environment of the workgroup, is expected to improve the likelihood that leaders will be better able to deal with interpersonal disturbances in their respective workgroups.

For leaders who manage a workgroup of any size, the findings of this study have implications for the importance of understanding inter-personal dynamic within their group across domains. As workplace ostracism is often covert in nature, it is important that leaders ensure that they effectively communicate with all members of their team, act in an inclusionary manner and remain aware of any important changes in the dynamic of the group. Understanding the importance of the interpersonal environment as well as the significance of proper interventionary behaviours are both important steps in improving the emotional burden felt by victims of workplace ostracism. We also suggest that

demonstrating proper interventionary behaviour may play an important role on a wide range of important subordinate workplace attitudes and behaviours.

2.6.9 Conclusion

In conclusion, the interventionary behaviour of the leader in the social climate of their respective workgroup plays an important role in the prevention or promotion of workplace ostracism. The resulting leadership behaviour taxonomy emerged by which the actions of supervisors and managers can be evaluated based on their ability to effectively deal with social ostracism at work using three emergent dimensions: their willingness to actively engage in the inter-relationships of their subordinates, the ability to make themselves aware that interpersonal issues are occurring in their workgroup, and their positive or negative intentions toward the ostracism target. The importance of studying ostracism at work is reinforced by the significant effects it had on targets and their social networks.

Although this first study focused on how leaders can impact experiences of workplace ostracism and well-being at work, we have reason to believe that this emergent form of leadership behaviour has important implications beyond this domain. The ability for a leader to effectively identify interpersonal disturbances, plan a course of action and intervene in a positive and developmental way is likely to elicit positive responses from subordinates, regardless of whether they are directly involved. We believe that the simple understanding that one's leader is willing to display loyalty and support in times of interpersonal conflict is likely to have lasting effects on individual members and the team as a whole.

In Study 2, we explore the notion of leaders as potential interpersonal interveners in further detail through a follow-up qualitative study. The focus will be to examine this phenomenon from the perspective of the leader in an effort to gain greater insight into the actual decision-making process involved in relational interventions and to gain a greater understanding of whether this type of behaviour is used to address issues beyond workplace ostracism. The objective here is to gather further information regarding this construct by examining it from another perspective. Furthermore, by involving managers in the theory and item development process, we hope to strengthen the predictive capacity of the proposed model.

CHAPTER THREE

3. STUDY 2: LEADER PERCEPTIONS OF RELATIONAL INTERVENTIONS

The results of Study 1 showed that a leader's role in the prevention or promotion of social ostracism could be categorized along three dimensions. Study 2 explores these interventionary behaviours from the point of view of leaders in an effort to gain a more comprehensive perspective of the thought process behind the decision to intervene in social disagreements. As such, the objectives of the study are threefold. First we explore the importance that managers place on the decision to intervene and how they go about accomplishing this. Secondly, we set out to explore the cognitive process that leaders go through in deciding whether or not to intervene in relational issues at work. Finally, we seek to understand whether these leadership behaviours can be used to resolve interpersonal conflict beyond instances of social ostracism. It is with these three objectives in mind that we further attempt to explore how leaders decide how to manage conflict in their workgroup.

3.1 STUDY 2 METHOD

3.1.1 Sample

10 Canadian leaders (4 women) from the healthcare (3), retail (2), and education (2) sectors were recruited to take part in interviews that focused on their personal views on managing social disagreements among employees at work. The average age of managers was 43.50 (*SD* = 13.13) years of age and they worked an average of 10 years in a management position (*S.D.* = 7.63). They had no links with any of the individuals or

organizations who participated in Study 1.The pseudonyms, ages and positions of all participants are provided in Table 6.

3.1.2 Procedure and data analysis

Managers were recruited by a snowball sampling technique where the researcher contacted both personal acquaintances and members of the Concordia community looking for individuals with several years of managerial experience. Individuals were invited to get in contact with the researcher if they were interested in taking part in an interview on the interpersonal side of management. Efforts were made to search for managers with diverse experiences and backgrounds. Interested participants were contacted through email regarding a time to set up an interview. All interviews took place in a location outside the workplace of the interviewee and were carried out by the researcher.

3.1.3 Procedure

Prior to the start of each interview, the researcher received consent to audio record each participant and ensured them that all responses would be kept confidential. Next, participants were introduced to the concept of social intervener, which was briefly defined for them as an intervention by a person or group with some form of power in the social affairs of others and any questions on the topic were answered prior to the start of the interview. Each interview consisted of questions regarding the professional career of each leader including their tenure and areas of expertise. After the researcher had a comprehensive understanding of the work context of each participant, the questions shifted towards each interviewee's personal dealings with social disagreements and unjust treatment at work. As the main objective of this study was to gain a more

comprehensive understanding of the process by which leaders choose whether or not to intervene in social disturbances within their workgroup we left it up to the leader to decide what type of issue they wanted to discuss. Rather, managers were asked to discuss an occasion when they found that one or more of their employees were being treated unjustly in the workplace. This decision was made for two reasons. First, we wanted to see if leaders would discuss ostracism without being probed about it and secondly, we wanted to confirm that leaders are able to perceive exclusionary behaviour taking place in their own workgroup.

Particular attention was placed on the beliefs and heuristics that each leader used regarding their decisions to intervene in social disagreements between and among coworkers. This included detailed probing of each of the three behaviours outlined as particularly important in the previous study (awareness, proactivity and intentionality) as well as more generalized questions regarding how they decided when to intervene and what methods they preferred to use. Finally, they were asked about their experience observing other leaders in their organization and whether they succeeded or failed in interpersonal interventions in addition to being asked to provide advice for new managers on how to handle intergroup conflict.

Once the interview was complete, each participant was asked to evaluate and add any additional items that they believed would contribute to an early version of a leader behaviour questionnaire that was being developed in parallel with these interviews. Once this last step was completed, the leaders were fully debriefed and presented with a $10 gift card for a local book store. The full list of interview questions is provided in Appendix B.

3.1.4 Coding procedure

The transcripts were analyzed using the grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). All of the transcripts were read over multiple times and comments were sorted into groups of emergent categories. The researcher constantly compared the coding right up until the end of the analysis in an effort to increase the coherence of the results (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). After the point of saturation was reached where no new codes were being developed, the analysis of the data was completed.

Given that the data were analyzed using an inductive approach, the codes emerged primarily from the data, with existing literature and the results of the first study providing additional rationale for each code. As coding progressed, initial codes were changed, merged and eliminated to achieve greater coherence and to uncover higher-order categories. This process has been termed "hierarchical coding" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

All possible efforts were made to ensure that the codes that were developed from the data were consistent with the intent behind the statements of each participant. As such, particular attention was given to references to the decisions and actions, if any, that were taken to intervene in social workplace disturbances. With this as a framework, a final list of 14 themes was derived from the data.

3.2 Study 2 Results

The most interesting initial finding of this study was that exactly half of managers chose to discuss some form of workplace ostracism as an example of an interpersonal issue in their workgroup, with the remainder being cases of disrespect, bullying or

miscommunication. The fact that ostracism was used in so many examples, without prompt, as the prime example of unjust treatment is interesting as it coincides with the original objective of Study 1, to study how victims of ostracism at work experience this behaviour. One might argue that this may be due to some form of self-preserving impulse on the part of the manager, to select a form of interpersonal mistreatment that makes them look particularly observant and does not have the same level of cultural distaste as sexual harassment or bullying. This, however, may not be the real explanation as ostracism has been shown to be distressing to bystanders from both an emotional and physiological standpoint (Coyne et al., 2011) and as such, may more deeply affect managers, thus making these experiences more significant and easier to remember.

Once managers had identified and discussed an interpersonal disturbance in their workgroup, a second objective was to understand how they became aware of it and what steps, if any, were taken to resolve it. To accomplish this, each manager was asked to describe their experience chronologically. This particular approach was selected so as to reduce the likelihood that participants may feel defensive about their managerial decisions. We also used the three dimensional framework of proactivity, awareness and intentionality that emerged from Study 1 to analyze the data. First, we attempt to support the initial findings of Study 1 by having leaders describe their experience intervening in interpersonal conflict while comparing their actions to the leadership behaviours described by employees experiencing workplace ostracism. Secondly, we use the stories and experiences of these leaders to further enrich the scale development process.

3.2.1 Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviours

3.2.2 Active/Passive

The first of the three emergent managerial factors from the first study was how active or passive the leader or manager was in the development of the social environment within the workgroup. Analysis of the transcripts revealed that the managers in this sample did, indeed think of their role along these lines. Consistent with the findings of Study 1, some leaders chose to actively confront social disturbances as exemplified by a comment made by Jack, a manager at a movie theatre "the minute the split happened, I saw it that day, and spoke to them about it to try and settle things down." Other managers, conversely, took a more passive approach as highlighted by the following quote from a software development manager "They (the employees) can never be a truly free agent operating at their top capacity if you keep intervening. So you have to let them have a bit of free reign there, there really has to be good cause or they have to be asking for your help or something like that. And then you have to be diplomatic in the way you do it."

3.2.3 Aware/Unaware

Several managers viewed their ability to understand the social dynamic of their workgroup as not only part of their job, but as a source of pride:

> "I'm a family therapist as well… I'm hyperaware of these kinds of dynamics," (Catherine)

> "I could see it brewing for a while. I'm usually very on top of the dynamic, so I sort of saw everything come together, and I'd sort of worked with all of them for five or six years, so I sort of knew how things could play out." (Anne)

Others alternatively were actively aware because of their own personal treatment "Since I have that experience, I feel like I'm more aware, kind of watching out for that type of thing happening, so I wouldn't want it to happen to anybody else." What seemed most important to aware-oriented leaders, however, was that they remained current with their workgroup and placed added effort in ensuring that even minute changes in the group dynamic were understood.

Managers, due to their varied responsibilities are not able to see everything that occurs within their group. As such, it may not always be possible to perceive issues that may not be immediately apparent. A restaurant night manager discussed how she was not pleased with the way that she handled a particularly poignant situation "by the time I realized it was happening, it was really too late… I never saw any kind of bullying in itself, which kind of bugged me, because when he was on the way out, I said that I wish that I had known that, because then I would have addressed it differently." With the sheer amount of tasks to accomplish each day, it is understandable that not all issues could possibly be seen and addressed, but the case mentioned above shows that even managers with the best of intentions can be unaware of certain things occurring within their own workgroup.

3.2.4 Positively/Negatively Intentioned

Of all of the facets of relational interventionary behaviour, self-reported negative behaviours proved to be the most difficult to garner candid responses from the participants. Not one manager mentioned or even alluded to acting in any way that would resemble negative behaviour; however, some mentioned that they observed other managers with whom they had worked acting in a negative way towards their employees. For example, one government manager discussed how he had to intervene after one manager and an employee could not resolve a disagreement and the work environment became completely unprofessional. He further mentioned "suddenly, there was a grievance from the employee and … when they came to work; they were coming to work with the intent of creating trouble for the other person." In this particular case, this manager had to intervene in a disturbance between a lower-level manager and an employee as a grievance was filed.

Positively intentioned behaviours, conversely, were abundant in this sample of managers. Although it could be argued that this could be viewed as a self-serving attribution bias, it also displays how managers are making a conscious decision to ensure that a comfortable work environment is a priority. This priority is demonstrated in the following statements, the first from a hospital manager and the second from a restaurant night manager:

> "I espouse values that, again, facilitate what you want to do, and then treat people honestly and fairly, don't have an axe to grind and use a lot of humour." (Ivan)

> "I act as a part of the team … I'm part of them, and if we're busy, I'm going to do dishes, I'm going to bus, I'm going to be behind the bar if it's busy, I'm going to help the servers, you know." (Carla)

In sum, in an effort to triangulate the leadership results of Study 1, a group of managers with no associations to the previous study were used. The findings provide additional support to the relational interventionary leadership behaviour theory. Direct evidence was found for five of the six factors, while indirect evidence was found for the sixth factor of negative intentions through target manager observations of other managers. This suggests that these relational leadership interventionary behaviours can be seen as a complex set of actions on the part of the manager that are interpreted by both the employee and manager alike. The current study also highlights that although there are interpersonal differences in the extent to which each person is capable of effectively enacting these behaviours, the results show the importance of these interventionary behaviours for managers and employees alike.

The next section will explore exactly how and why managers choose to intervene in social disturbances within their workgroups. The analysis encompassed preventative actions designed to thwart undesired disagreements and issues from arising, decisions to intervene and what threshold, if any, is required to act, the preferred intervention method and resources that each manager uses to ensure that they make the best decision. Table 7 lists each of these themes, in addition to the higher-order codes that were distilled from the interviews.

3.3 Preventative Actions

The managers who were interviewed took a variety of steps to ensure that those working under them were not only productive, but worked together as effectively as possible. In terms of interventionary behaviour, one key outcome from these interviews was the assertion by every manager that preventative measures were the most effective tool in ensuring that mistreatment among colleagues was kept to a minimum. Based on the interviews, these preventative actions took on two distinct forms. The first was related to covert actions where managers used different intelligence gathering techniques to better understand the interpersonal climate of the workgroup and the second concerned overt actions where the manager implemented different strategies to create a more cohesive workgroup. These actions are further explained below.

3.3.1 Covert Actions

3.3.1.1 Personal Monitoring

The first of these covert actions discussed by the managers was the use of personal monitoring. As Carl, a principal of an elementary school put it "You're kind of doing that management approach by walking around. If you're doing that, you're not sitting in your office, you can pretty quickly find out what's happening." As he mentioned, by going out and learning about how all members of the group are getting along with one another, he was able to gain a greater understanding of the overall interpersonal climate among teachers at his school and further went on to say that this helped to expose problems such as disagreements or perceptions of unfair treatment before it became a larger issue.

3.3.1.2 Information Gathered from Employees (Spies)

The second component of this category highlighted the importance of having strong employee connections so that they will approach you with issues or if they see anything happening. The following quotes demonstrate how gathering intelligence from employees is an important tool for leaders:

> "In some cases a staff member would come out and provide information confidentially about another member of the group." (Robert)

> "I mean, you do have spies, although I hesitate to call them that, because it's a pejorative term, but there are people who will help you." (Carl)

Gathering intelligence both personally and from internal sources about the team dynamic of the workgroup appeared to be an essential component to ensuring that teams operated effectively. There seemed to be some ambivalence, however, when it came to discussing information provided by team members. With terms like "spy" being used, some felt partially uncomfortable acquiring information this way, regardless of its usefulness.

3.3.2 Overt Actions

When it came to ensuring that employees worked harmoniously with one another, managers also chose to act in ways that were much more explicit. The behaviours highlighted in this larger theme focus on ensuring that everyone is working towards a common goal, choosing to lead by example, ensuring that employees understand what their roles and responsibilities are and developing strong working relationships with all members of the team.

In many ways, these more overt manager behaviours appeared to be the most effective in ensuring that interpersonal disturbances did not gain traction within the workgroup. One potential explanation behind the effectiveness of these methods was summed up succinctly by Carl "If you hide away from [issues], you're not a leader, you're just a manager, but that's a difference, I think that's a big difference." This quote highlights how managers who view themselves as a leader must advocate for their employees and be willing to confront issues that may not always make them comfortable. This willingness to lead can take many forms as can be seen in the themes highlighted below.

3.3.2.1 Engender Mission/Values

The majority of managers interviewed in this sample highlighted the importance of directing all employees towards the same mission. The rationale behind this stems from the belief that if all members of the team rally around the same goal, many of the smaller personal issues in the group will dissipate. Another strategy managers adopted was to ensure that the values of the group are aligned with the overall mission. The more aligned the values of the group were to the overarching mission, the less likely it became for managers to have to deal with confrontation and conflict. Not surprisingly, managers took this portion of their work very seriously, as is exemplified in the following selected comments:

> "Make sure that you have a clear mission, that you elucidate that mission, that you engender values that facilitate the accomplishment of the mission… I think if you give people a mission, especially one that they believe in, then that makes a lot of problems disappear." (Bernard)

"So, the interpersonal conflicts, in my experience, if you create a good culture, with clear leadership, with the idea of what you want to do, why you want to do it, the values that go along with that, these interpersonal conflicts are relatively rare." (School principal)

"My first line of intervention is that you create values, and you develop the climate, I mean, that's what you try to do. You're not there to settle individual squabbles. You're there to create a work climate and get people to follow those values that you're espousing." (Anne)

3.3.2.2 Lead by example/ Getting to know their employees

Other managers believed that the best method of creating a positive work environment was to place themselves at the fore of the group and lead by example, as is stated in the following quote from a restaurant manager:

"I think there's the old way of managing, and there's, not the new way, but I think it's been changing for a while, you know of a manager behind a desk, hiding somewhere in front of video cameras and just saying go do this, go do that, or you have the nicer way, where you're part of the team, where you're a manager, part of the house itself but in terms of the staff, the employees, I'm part of them." (Carl)

This type of managerial action demonstrates to employees that they will be supported and creates a lasting sense of commitment from all employees as the hardest working member of the team is the manager. Placing oneself at the fore of the group ensures that the manager has the best observation point for initial signs of unrest within

the group, which ties in to another strategy of getting to know your employees. The importance of doing this is evidenced by the following quote by an after school educational program coordinator:

> "You get to know your staff, you get to know how they function, and you can fix things right on the spot." (Carl)

3.3.2.3 Clarify Roles and Responsibilities

Another preventative measure taken by managers to reduce the likelihood of needing to intervene was through the clarification of member roles and responsibilities. As one manager succinctly put it "The best way that managers can reduce social workplace issues is through defining individual responsibilities in a way that is clear for all" (Anne). By ensuring that each individual is clear on what they need to accomplish, managers attempted to reduce territorial encroachments, which, as specified by a hospital manager, represents a significant source of group disagreement:

> "I created, in essence, independent territories that were respected, so that people became experts, recognized experts in certain territories. That was an extremely important thing to, as you didn't have people fighting for the same territory, fighting for the same area of respect. So a lot of it was preventative." (Ivan)

3.4 Threshold to Intervene

With the focus on how and when to act when interpersonal issues arise at work, each manager was asked to specify the criteria they used to decide whether or not to intervene. These responses could be broken down into two distinct categories. The first category focused on instances where objective reductions in performance were observed

in the workgroup and the steps that were taken to improve the situation. The second category, however, focused on more interventions as a result of more subtle degradations in the group climate over time as a result of disagreements among work group members.

3.4.1 Negative Effects on Performance

A commonly held view of the role of a manager is to ensure that their group reaches performance goals that they set out to achieve. Several of the interviewed managers expressed similar views where interpersonal disturbances were seen as an obstacle to achieving some performance goal. Once these disagreements or issues among coworkers increased to the level that they were seen as a hindrance to meeting some objective, there was an impetus to act:

> "When it starts to disrupt people's work… I get myself involved." (Catherine)

> "It's really important that a lot of people, you don't necessarily have to like each other, but you have to be able to work well together." (Jack)

> "Even though it's not a direct performance issue, it's still an issue that spreads into our performance, about something that we're always concerned with." (Steven)

Analyzing the comments that were made by managers who felt inclined to intervene when the group's performance was in decline, they appeared to mirror the behaviours described by Bass (1985) in his explanation of management-by-exception passive. Similar to the behaviour integrated in the full range leadership model (Bass & Avolio, 1995), the manager chooses to get involved in issues, which in this case would be

interpersonal disturbances, when it becomes absolutely necessary and performance begins to become negatively affected.

3.4.2 Negative Effect on Work Environment

Rather than relying on performance and output in isolation, some managers chose to use a more subjective evaluation of the interpersonal dynamic of their group in their decision to intervene. One of these criteria focused on whether they could maintain harmonious workplace relationships within the group and, as stated above, many decided to act preemptively to accomplish this goal. If, however, all of these overt actions did not serve to prevent substantial interpersonal disturbances from taking place, these managers chose to get involved when they saw a noticeable decline in the morale or work climate of the group as is demonstrated in the following statements:

> "I can't have employees working in a hostile environment, that's just not acceptable." (Catherine)

> "I think it really has to go to a certain level [of conflict], and we would pick up on that, in terms of the work environment." (Bernard)

> "It was just the fact that it [this behaviour] couldn't continue." (Bonnie)

As can be discerned from these responses, every one of the managers who were interviewed had some form of heuristic developed to deal with the possibility that members of their team would not get along. It was interesting to note that although each worded their statements differently, their responses all revolved around their personal intervention threshold. This coincides with Mintzberg's (2002) managerial role of

disturbance handler, where managers mediate disputes and find a resolutions to team issues before they begin to affect overall performance.

3.5 Intervention Resources

A common theme across interviews was how the decision to intervene was not done arbitrarily; rather it was a deliberate decision that required a great deal of thought. In addition to conscious deliberation, managers relied on a variety of resources at their disposal to decide on the best course of action. These included involving upper management in an effort to draw on their expertise and knowledge. In addition, managers used their own past experience to develop solutions to meet each contingency in addition to using the Employee Assistance Program (EAP) provided by the organization to all employees.

3.5.1 Seeking Support from Colleagues

One resource that managers were able to draw upon during times of interpersonal conflict in their group was the knowledge and support of other managers. One way that they did this was by comparing notes with peers or upper managers in order to remove a particularly troublesome employee. This particular type of behaviour is exemplified in the following quote of a call center supervisor "I had a case, and we kind of put our stuff together, and with the backing obviously of the call center manager, who was fully on board with this to begin with… so it all kind of came together" and another by an insurance manager "Yeah, any time that I have something like that happen, I'm always kind of keeping him [the manager] in the loop as to what's happening."

One further means by which managers used upper management for support was by asking for active support and coaching. This is exemplified by a hospital manager, who relied on the knowledge and experience of those in higher positions to aid in dealing with a particularly difficult conversation with a staff member.

> "Usually I deal with the really difficult conversations, so there's coaching that I will do like kind of a role play, where I say that I'm going to approach this person in a meeting and kind of go through with it, and so there's always that kind of coaching and development." (Steven)

This reliance on the knowledge of more experienced managers is consistent with the influence literature of upward appeal where lower-level managers seek the consent of upper management prior to setting on a particular course of action (Kipnis et al., 1980; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). This particular tactic not only increases the legitimacy of the decision as it has the consent of upper management, but it also helps to improve the chance that the intervention will succeed.

3.5.2 Reliance on Personal Experience

Quite possibly the most important resource that these managers discussed were their own personal experiences. Some discussed how it was their own experiences when they were an employee that shaped how they chose to intervene which can be summed up in this quote by an insurance manager.

> "Because of my personal experience of being bullied at work… my manager wouldn't do or wouldn't believe it, until I finally quit. I didn't even know how to do my job anymore. It had that much of an impact to the point where I didn't even

realize until probably a year and a half until after I left, probably what had happened to me. And you know, it does have a big impact on it, and it's something that since I have that experience that I feel like I'm more aware, kind of watching out for that type of thing happening, so I wouldn't want it to happen to anybody else." (Robert)

Others had a more holistic approach where they used not only their past experience as a manager, but also what they had read or learned in previous training seminars. As an elementary school principal stated "I guess a lot of my approaches came from studying a lot of the management people and that kind of thing over the years, and involving what seemed to make sense to me and what seemed to make sense to others in the organization and allow me to move forward." Not only did this previous experience and education shape his perspective on how to intervene, it also helped him to appreciate the importance of context in the development of a nuanced approach to dealing with each issue.

3.5.3 Employee Assistance Program (EAP)

A further resource that managers relied on during these instances of employee mistreatment was their organization's Employee Assistance Program. These programs have grown in popularity with approximately 65% of employers in the United States offering some form of EAP service (Galinksy, Bond, & Sakai, 2008). In a study of 90,000 EAP calls from 1999 to 2010, Prottas et al. (2011) reported that job-related calls ranked fourth in terms of prevalence, behind psychological, relationship and family care. This was mirrored in the data by Robert, a manager of inbound customer service for an insurance company who said "We've got a full employee assistance program so, I

directed [the target of workplace ostracism] to that line, to kind of work the issues she was having."

3.6 Primary Intervention Method

When the decision was made by the leader to get involved as a third party in a dispute between work colleagues, the way in which they chose to go about this differed only slightly in its execution. Some leaders preferred to have both parties at odds with one another meet individually with them so that they could have a more relaxed conversation with the individuals involved. This method has many similarities with a general interrogation where the interrogator would look for story differences in the two stories and attempt to reconcile any discrepancies afterwards. Others, however, selected to have all interested parties meet together where the leader would act as a mediator to try and solve the issue on the spot. More information on these two techniques is provided below.

3.6.1 Individual Meetings

If pushed to the point where an intervention was inevitable, the sample of interviewees selected one of two strategies, the first focused on meeting the actors individually. As one manager of a movie theatre stated "I continued to just have individual conversations with all of them [the parties involved]. When she came to me [the target], I only spoke to them separately." This method seemed to be implemented when managers worried that there was a power imbalance between those involved, but led to difficulties when the stories of the different parties did not match. An example of this comes from Steven, an enterprise software development manager who was having to deal with two colleagues blaming each other for a significant error in a new software

program “the stories they told me were so different and they just didn’t match up, so I had to resort to other means to solve the problem.”

3.6.2 Group Meetings

Another intervention method that was discussed was a mediation method where the leader brought all of the parties involved together to try to resolve the situation peacefully “My decision was to reunite the whole team to talk about the situation, while redefining team member responsibilities.” This was further reinforced by a director of knowledge services who states “I like to keep things in the open. I don’t want to have secret meetings with other people and then come back and say well, someone told me this, and this person told me that. I would prefer to all talk together.”

It appeared that although the majority of managers had a preference for one method or another, there was some flexibility, from group to individual in the case of delicate information “If there is something sensitive, then of course I would hear out the person alone.” Or from individual to group when a major issue needed to be dealt with such as in the case of an assistant manager of a movie theatre “[We discussed with the group] the lines between your personal life and your work life. Try and keep those two sections separated if you’re unable to deal with the spillover from your personal life into the workplace, and then make sure that you clearly define those two environments.”

This is consistent with the work of Blake and Mouton (1964), who suggest that in conflict situations, managers are forced to focus on two major concerns, production and interpersonal relationships. These two concerns made up their Managerial Grid of discrete styles of conflict resolution. In the current example, we can see that managers

chose to either speak with the parties separately or together as a group. When using the individual method of conflict resolution, the focus was on having the parties resolve the issue without direct intervention suggesting that there is a high concern for the person and less of a concern for production. This would be classified as smoothing on Blake and Mouton's (1964) grid. The group meeting, however, is more focused on reconciling the competing objectives by having all parties discuss the issues and come to a combined and mutually defined resolution. This action would be viewed as a compromising behaviour on the part of the manager according to the Managerial Grid.

3.7 Study 2 Discussion

The main objective of these managerial interviews was to discover the extent to which interpersonal disturbances were seen as an issue for managers as well as to gain a greater understanding into the ways in which leaders wrestle with their role of interpersonal disturbance handler. The interviews, however, expanded in their scope to encompass a broader discussion on the role of managers in the lives of their employees. These discussions began to unearth the personal philosophies that they had of their role as a manager. From what was said to the actions that were taken, all of this came down to the way that these managers viewed their role. Some were more laissez-faire and would only get involved if there was no other means of resolving the issue, while others would intervene immediately after seeing the slightest sign of a disturbance.

The fact that such varied responses were present within such a small sample demonstrates how individual managerial tendencies play an important role in the creation of an intervention philosophy. All participants were asked about whether any company information had been provided to them as to how to confront interpersonal conflicts and

disturbances among colleagues and not one said that they were provided with any guidance. This suggests that in this particular case, managers are operating in a very weak situation (Mischel, 1973), whereby not all stimuli are encoded uniformly and appropriate responses are not clear. As such, you are much more likely to see each manager acting on their own volition as procedures and regulations have not been adequately set and proper action is unclear. It is this range of viewpoints and decisional differences as well as the lack of situational strength that makes ostracism fascinating as a phenomenon and ensures further study can yield significant improvements to best practices.

Although instances of ostracism were mentioned in exactly half of the leader interviews, there is evidence to suggest that relational leadership interventionary behaviour can serve as a means of reducing a variety of other counterproductive team behaviours including bullying and harassment among others. Leader interventions in social conflict at work seems to work on a much broader level than what emerged in Study 1, however, workplace ostracism remains an important challenge for those in management positions to overcome in their workgroup. What remains to be seen is whether this behaviour is viewed positively among individuals who do not experience ostracism at work.

The findings of Study 2 highlight the importance of both the actions and decision process of the observing third party in the decision to intervene in intergroup conflict situations. Previous research in third party conflict management have looked at best practices for resolving issues at work, however, much of it has focused on the situational and contextual factors that impact the intervention approach that should be taken (Elangovan, 1995; Nugent & Broedling, 2002). For instance, the degree of control over

the situation and the urgency that a resolution much be reached are both important issues that must be considered. Recent research in the area of third-party conflict management examined its capacity to moderate the relationship between perceived conflict and conflict stress. The results show that if leaders were forced into acting or avoided the conflict entirely, it had a more negative impact on conflict, but if they took a problem-solving approach, it reduced the association between relationship conflict and the stress associated with it (Romer et al., 2012). The current research extends our understanding of third-party conflict management by exploring the thought processes of managers when deciding whether to intervene. The results also highlight the importance of the manager's actions prior to the conflict and desire to resolve the conflict.

In terms of conflict resolution, there is evidence to suggest that successful teams are both proactive in anticipating the need for conflict resolution and pursue strategies that are both attuned to the needs of all members and are derived from the group itself (Behfar et al., 2008). This is consistent with the findings of the current study as leaders attempt to reconcile their own management style with the needs of their team members to come up with the best possible solution to the interpersonal disagreements that arise over the life of the group. In addition, there is much evidence to suggest that these leaders do not act in isolation from the rest of their team, but, rather, request input from various stakeholders within and outside the group.

Of course it is not always possible to notice all interpersonal issues within a workgroup and many of the managers expressed this belief. This reality, however, produced divergent responses from those being interviewed. While some took it as a personal challenge to try and get to know their group members better, others simply

reconciled themselves to the fact that nothing could be done, or that these imperceptible issues would resolve themselves. This claim, however, is refuted in Study 1, where every interviewed target of workplace ostracism highlighted the importance of proper managerial intervention in their case. As such, we argue that the development of strong relationships with team members and effective monitoring of the work climate paired with an effective conflict resolution procedure can have a positive impact on the mental health and effectiveness of employees.

3.7.1 Conclusion

In conclusion, a group of managers from diverse backgrounds were interviewed to gain their perspectives on the role that they play as interveners in interpersonal conflict within their group. The results document that organizations do not have formal policies regarding how to deal with this form of conflict and as such, managers are forced to develop a personal philosophy regarding the level of involvement in these situations. This philosophy is then used to guide leaders in their decision of whether or not to intervene, in addition to the use of a variety of actions at their disposal including drawing upon external resources, the use of covert and overt preventative actions and the way in which the intervention is carried out. Further, this research provides evidence that the three relational leadership interventionary behaviours emergent in Study 1 can be used to address a variety of issues beyond workplace ostracism, which helps us to broaden our understanding of the applicability of this emergent construct.

To gain a greater understanding of this phenomenon of relational leadership interventionary behaviour, as well as to further test this emergent theory, we propose a third study, using the three-dimensional taxonomy that emerged in Study 1 and was

confirmed in Study 2. The objective of this study is to develop a survey instrument to assess employee perceptions of their leader's interventionary style. In addition, we will explore the possible effects and consequences of these behaviours on relevant organizational outcomes including organizational citizenship behaviour and well-being. The next step will be to test the validity of this newly developed scale in relation to its hypothesized nomological network in Study 3. From here, the scale will be further tested on worker (Study 3), student (Study 4) and organizational samples (Study 5).

CHAPTER 4

4. STUDY 3: DEVELOPMENT OF A TAXONOMY FOR LEADER INTERVENTIONS

Results of Studies 1 and 2 indicate that the treatment received from participants' supervisors as well as manager self-reported behaviour could be categorized along three interdependent behavioural dimensions. The first of these three dimensions refers to the leader's awareness of any interpersonal wrongdoing occurring in their workgroup. This deals specifically with the leader's ability to discern whether problems exist in their work teams. If the leader is one who initiates these distancing behaviours, they are considered to be aware of their own actions, unless it was specifically mentioned that they were distracted or preoccupied. This assumption is based on the need threat model of ostracism (Williams, 2001), which states that sources may not perceive their behaviour as ostracizing.

The second dimension focuses on the extent to which leaders are actively engaged in understanding the interpersonal networks developed among members of their team. As opposed to developing personal relationships with each member of their team, which is conceptualized in the management literature as leader-member exchange (LMX) (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), or relationships among team members (TMX; Seers, 1989), this construct specifically centers on how actively engaged leaders are in the management of social links within their workgroup.

Thirdly, leaders may be evaluated on the extent to which their intentions with regards to the development of a shared work environment were perceived to be positive

or negative by targets. To be considered positively intentioned, supervisors acted in a way that was generally inclusionary in nature and focused on the extent to which the leader was perceived to show true concern for their subordinates. Negatively intentioned leaders, however, were shown to display little concern for the well-being of their employees or engaged actively in ostracizing or undermining behaviours directed at the victim.

4.1 Leader Relational Interventionary Behaviour (RELIB) in a Broader Group Context

There have been numerous attempts by scholars to categorize generalizable and valuable competencies across teams. Cannon Bowers et al. (1995) extended the traditional knowledge, skills, attributes and other characteristics (KSAOs) model by adding teamwork skills as a key component of team effectiveness. Included in their list of eight dimensions are shared situational awareness, interpersonal relations and leadership/team management, all of which are directly related to the relational leadership interventionary behaviour (RELIB) model. Although, situational awareness is focused more on where the team is in relation to its goal, it can also be considered as an important component of reducing and resolving intergroup disagreements as they may hinder goal progress. More recently, Marks, Mathieu, and Zaccaro (2001) proposed ten dimensions that could be grouped into transition, action and interpersonal processes, the last of which focuses on interpersonal issues among group members. This is further supported by a variety of empirical studies which have shown a positive relationship between teamwork skills and effectiveness (e.g., Bell, 2007; Stevens, 1999).

Although not explicitly stated in many team reviews (e.g., Kozlowski et al., 2006; Mathieu et al., 2008; 2013), many discuss the benefits of person and task-focused leader behaviours. The proposed leader relational interventionary behaviours taxonomy fall into the former category as it functions by improving the overall interpersonal climate of the group by facilitating the exchange of information, inclusion and conflict resolution. As such, we believe it to be an important and under-researched leadership phenomenon.

4.2 The Multidimensionality of Leader Relational Interventionary Behaviour

The three proposed leadership behavioural dimensions are conceptualized as distinct. For example, a leader who is aware of animosity between two individuals may choose to actively or passively engage the situation in a positive or negative way. As such, these three behaviours are expected to be distinct, yet highly correlated with one another.

Hypothesis 1: Leader interventionary behaviour is a multidimensional construct consisting of three factors: proactivity, awareness and intentionality.

In the next section we describe the development of a scale aiming to assess the three leadership relational interventionary behaviour of proactivity, awareness and intentionality. From there, we will test and evaluate the properties of this scale using factor analysis. Finally, we validate the scale using confirmatory factor analysis in addition to construct and criterion validation procedures.

4.3 Construct validation

4.3.1 Scale Development Process

To develop and test the dimensionality of leader relational interventionary behaviour, the present study followed the procedures set forth by Hinkin (1995, 1998) and Nunnally (1978) regarding the development of psychometrically sound measurement instruments. In the first phase of Study 3, items will be generated based mainly on the interview transcripts from Study 1, and the extant literature. In the second phase, the newly generated scale will be validated using a sample of employed adults to further refine this measure by analyzing inter-item correlations, item-to-total correlations and the factor loadings of each item. It is expected, based on the findings of Studies 1 & 2 that this process will result in three separate behavioural dimensions. Additional samples will then be used in subsequent studies to lend further support to the three relational leader behaviour constructs using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and their relationship with a variety of personal and organizational outcomes.

In order for the instrument to be considered acceptable for use in research, it must demonstrate construct validity, defined as the ability of the scale to effectively measure what it sets out to measure (Hinkin, 1998). Hinkin further goes on to explain that there exist three major facets of the construct validation process. The first of these facets is that the domain of the construct must be effectively investigated so that the boundaries of the construct are explored. This ensures that the item generation procedure is done in an effective manner so that items can be developed in such a way that they focus on the construct being studied and not extraneous ones. The second facet to this process consists of developing and empirically testing developed items to determine their ability to

measure what they were created to measure. The third and final step is to examine the ability of the developed measure to effectively predict results based on theorized hypotheses (Nunnally, 1978). The ability for a measurement scale to effectively tap into a theoretical construct forms the basis for construct validity and is an indispensable gauge by which the quality of a measure can be ensured. The proposed scale will be developed systematically using a series of phases described below to demonstrate construct validity. Once this has been accomplished, we will examine the predictive capacity of the scale in addition to its discriminant and convergent validity.

4.3.2 Convergent validity

4.3.2.1 Leader-Member Exchange

Research on leader-member exchange suggests that the greater the relationship quality between a leader and his or her subordinate, the better the trust and performance of the subordinate. The leader-member exchange theory is one of the first leadership theories to include the follower in the leadership process (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In the case of leaders who exhibit high interventionary behaviours, the leader plays a specific role in the development of relationships with their subordinates; however, the leader reacts in a much more dynamic way, as they are tasked with surveying their internal workgroup environment and intervening effectively when relational issues arise among coworkers. The added layer of complexity is an important distinction between the two concepts as simply having high quality relationships with each subordinate is not enough to ensure that interpersonal difficulties do not arise within a given workgroup. Rather, leaders must find effective methods of ensuring harmonious working relationships within their team. This sense of workgroup harmony is something that

leaders must develop beyond the relationships they establish with each of their team members, rather, they must consistently be aware of social issues that arise in their team and have the wherewithal to act in a way that benefits their team and the organization as a whole.

One of the assumptions held in the leader-member exchange literature is that high quality relationships are positive for both individuals involved in the relationship and the organization as a whole. As both leader and follower enjoy and benefit from this high quality relationship, the intentions of both parties to retain and nurture this relationship are strong. Many scholars agree that high quality leader-member exchange relationships are complex, generally positive (Volmer, Spurk, & Niessen, 2011) and lead to beneficial outcomes for both the leader and the follower (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

High quality leader-member exchange relationships, in turn, lead to improved communication between subordinate and leader (Minsky, 2002). As these relationships strengthen over time, it has been shown to increase trust between members (Dulebohn et al., 2011) and the comfort level of leaders to delegate tasks to these subordinates (Bauer, Green, & Bauer, 1996). Much as leaders will be more comfortable with their subordinates, it is expected that subordinates will feel more at ease to discuss personal problems with their managers, thus making them potentially aware of interpersonal issues within the workplace. As such, high LMX leaders are expected to increase the awareness of interpersonal issues arising within the workgroup through this ability to communicate more effectively with subordinates.

The leadership literature has been quite adamant about the importance of actively engaging one's employees in direct dialogue. One of the key intervention methods used for improving the leader-member exchange abilities of leaders is the use of active listening skills, where employees' concerns are listened to and dealt with effectively (Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982; Scandura & Green, 1984).

In sum, we expect a strong, positive correlation between leader-member exchange and the three dimensions of the relational leadership interventionary behaviour scale. We expect this because developing a high quality relationship and being aware, proactive and positively intentioned in the various interpersonal needs of the group are linked. As such, we put forward the following hypothesis:

> ***Hypothesis 2: Leader-member exchange will have a strong, positive correlation with the (a) intentionality (b) awareness and (c) proactive dimensions of the Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour Scale.***

4.3.2.2 Emotional Intelligence

In addition to leader-member exchange, an additional construct that could aid in understanding leadership relational interventionary behaviour is the perceived emotional intelligence of the supervisor. Defined as "an array of emotional, personal and social abilities and skills that influence an individual's ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressures" (Bar-On & Parker, 2000, p. 1108), it has been argued that emotional intelligence is a combination of three inter-related mental processes. The first is the ability to appraise and express emotions both personally and in others, the second regards regulating their personal emotions and those of their

subordinates, so as to avoid them leading to destructive consequences and the third involves using emotions in adaptive ways such as in the case of challenging one's colleagues through a mood-inducing vision of the future (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). This view of emotional intelligence as a beneficial tool for leaders to use when deciding whether or not to intervene in a given workplace interpersonal issue stems from the work of Whetten and Cameron (2002) who assert that management skills, which in many cases are conceptually similar to emotional intelligence, act in a way to produce high quality performance outcomes for organizations. This view whereby emotional intelligence aids in the effective managing of employees in work settings has been supported in the literature (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004).

Of particular importance to the current study is the ability for leaders with high emotional intelligence to accomplish three important things. The first is for these leaders to be able to discern and interpret the emotions of their subordinates effectively. This plays a significant role in the ability to intervene effectively because in order to do so, a crisis or situation must be identified. Secondly, the leader must be able to empathize with both the target and the initiator, so that a mutually beneficial resolution can be found. Finally, the leader must be able to select the proper intervention method that serves to solve the situation while maintaining buy-in from all parties. These interventions, in order to be effective, must take into account the needs and egos of all parties involved as well as the ability to ensure that motivation is maintained. As such, a strong, positive correlation between the two constructs is expected.

The capacity for leaders to exhibit these three proposed leadership interventionary behaviours of being active, aware and positively intentioned requires abilities that closely

resemble the four emotional competencies necessary for highly emotionally intelligent leaders, including: emotional self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship awareness (Goleman, 1998). When comparing the two constructs, it becomes apparent that there are some obvious similarities between both interventionary behaviour and emotional intelligence. Successful leader intervention in social disturbances partially involves the ability to assess and be mindful of fluctuations in the emotions of both the leader and their subordinates. In order to be aware of what is going on in the workplace, the leader must exhibit both social and relationship awareness (Goleman, 1998). Being actively engaged in the interventionary process requires both social and relationship awareness in addition to self-management. Finally, the intentions that the leader has when it comes to these social interventions can only be perceived effectively if the leader is emotionally self-aware. Although the two constructs are viewed as having some similarities, the key difference between the two is that relational interventionary leadership behaviours focus more on dynamic actions as opposed to emotional intelligence which defines competencies, but does not assess the ability of leaders to use them effectively. Thus, the following hypothesis is postulated:

> ***Hypothesis 3: Employee perceptions of supervisor emotional intelligence will have a strong, positive correlation with all three dimensions of the Relational Interventionary Leadership Behaviour Scale.***

4.3.3 Discriminant Validity

One of the key means that a scale can demonstrate construct validity is by demonstrating its discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is defined as a

demonstration that measures of constructs that are conceptually unrelated to the focal construct under study are not correlated, which provides evidence that the two constructs are unrelated in reality. To test this we examine the leadership literature for distinct leadership measures that may be unrelated to our focal RELIB construct.

Leader behaviours have been studied in the literature for well over 60 years and the results of this work yielded two broadly defined behaviours that were found to relate to positive organizational outcomes. These included initiating structure, otherwise known as task-oriented behaviour, and consideration or relationship-oriented behaviour (Fleishman, 1953; Stogdill, 1963). More recently, however, work in this field has yielded a more nuanced perspective on leadership behaviour and expanded the number of discrete behaviours under study (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002; Yukl & Lepsinger, 1990) in addition to adding a third meta-category of change-oriented behaviour (Yukl, 1999). The Managerial Practices Survey (Yukl & Lepsinger, 1990), which was used to test the presence of three meta-categories, yielded 15 specific behaviours that were linked more generally to either task, relations or change-oriented leadership.

As the RELIB is an instrument that measures the extent to which a leader is aware of social issues within their workgroup, all behaviours focused on the supporting and developing employees were not included for the purpose of testing divergent validity. The most distantly related dimensions in this leader behaviour scale are the change-centered behaviour of external monitoring and the task-centered behaviour of short-term planning. Both involve strategic behaviour, which rely more on finding best practices and setting standards for the team, rather than developing relationships within the team.

Additionally, the selection of these two constructs stem from the fact that they are the two least social dimensions in the entire scale.

In addition to using a leadership construct to demonstrate discriminant validity, we also expect that leader interventionary behaviour will be independent of a variety of individual and contextual factors. One of these constructs is employee computer usage at work. Participants' amount of time spent on the computer represents a variable that is expected to be completely unrelated to the style of leadership that their direct supervisor will exhibit from both a theoretical and conceptual level. As such, we expect that individual computer usage at work will be unrelated to perceptions of leader interventionary behaviour. Additionally, we expect the organizational tenure of the respondents to be unrelated to the interventionary leadership style of their direct supervisor. Given that the leadership behaviours of monitoring the external environment and short-term planning in addition to the extent to which employees use a computer and their tenure represent variables that are distinct from both a theoretical and conceptual level, if a null relation is found between these variables and the relational leadership interventionary behaviour dimensions were supported, this would provide evidence to support the case for the discriminant validity of the RELIB scale.

4.4 Criterion-Related Validity

Criterion-related validity is an important feature of construct validity, because one must empirically demonstrate that the survey instrument being developed is related to outcomes derived from theory (Hinkin, 1998). As such, to aid in establishing the nomological network of the RELIB, we have focused on four distinct variables to which

leadership interventionary behaviours should relate. These are described in the following section.

4.4.1 Workplace Ostracism

Research in social ostracism has suggested that individuals who are excluded, regardless of whether they are a potential friend or from a despised group, will experience this feeling of exclusion (Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007). As such, if a leader is actively engaged in intervening on their behalf, it is expected that the target will report much lower levels of workplace ostracism. Targets of ostracism often feel as though they do not exist (Williams et al., 2000). This can be further exacerbated if those around them do not acknowledge or are not aware that anything untoward is even happening. Additional research on passive leadership has shown that leaders who remove themselves from daily decision-making responsibilities create an environment where workplace bullying can thrive (Skogstad et al., 2007). As such, it is anticipated that actively engaged leadership behaviour will be related to lower levels of workplace ostracism.

One of the key aspects of workplace ostracism that sets itself apart from other counterproductive behaviours is the difficulty with which these actions can be perceived by observers (Williams, 1997; 2001). The fact that ostracism may be directed towards a member of the workgroup does not guarantee that others will be able to discern that it is occurring. As a result of this predominately silent act, leaders who are highly aware of the inter-relationships among their subordinates are most likely to perceive the occurrence of ostracism and be in the best position to intervene.

The importance of leader intentions cannot be understated, in an environment where a target is ostracized; it may be possible for a positively intentioned leader to create a sense of psychological safety, while acting in a manner that ensures that this behaviour will not happen again (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). If the reverse is true, leaders have the ability to do tremendous harm by contributing to the overall ostracism of the target. As such, it is hypothesized that each of the three RELIB dimensions will be negatively related to employees' perceptions of workplace ostracism.

Hypothesis 4: The three dimensions of the Relational Interventionary Leadership Behaviour Scale will be negatively related to perceptions of workplace ostracism.

4.4.2 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job (Locke, 1976). A leader's desire to resolve interpersonal issues in their workgroup displays a desire to act in a way that is constructive to all subordinates. The harmonious relationship between an employee and their leader as well as their coworkers has long been demonstrated to be a key component of overall job satisfaction. This integration of both coworker and supervisor relationships with overall evaluations of job satisfaction can be found in a variety of validated scales including the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS; Hackman & Oldham, 1974), the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Balzer, Brannick, Chia, Eggleston, Gibson, Johnson et al., 1987; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1985). By being actively engaged in creating a constructive working environment, leaders demonstrate to

their employees that they have their best interests in mind while seriously working towards developing a harmonious workplace environment. This same desire has been shown to be beneficial to employees and translates directly into job satisfaction (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

One way in which leaders can effectively create a harmonious work environment is by being aware of both positive and negative occurrences within their team. Leaders who scan their workgroup environment and make themselves aware of counterproductive interpersonal issues at work and effectively deal with them before they severely affect the group are hypothesized to improve the satisfaction of their employees (Graen et al., 1982; Schriesheim & Murphy, 1976). This desire on the part of the leader to act in the best interest of the group as a whole is likely to demonstrate to employees that they are cared for, which further affects satisfaction.

The final dimension that relates RELIB to job satisfaction is the perceived intention of the leader. If leaders demonstrate that they are positively intentioned towards their subordinates, they are far more likely to foster increased job satisfaction. This relationship has been replicated countless times as satisfaction with one's supervisor has been found to correlate highly with overall satisfaction (e.g., Blau, 1999). As such, having a leader who behaves in a positive and caring way is expected to increase overall perceptions of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5: The three dimensions of the Relational Interventionary Leadership Behaviour Scale will be positively related to perceptions of job satisfaction.

4.4.3 Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Organizational citizenship behaviour has been defined as behaviour that "contributes to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (Organ, 1997, p. 91). This same reciprocal and mutually beneficial exchange relationship between the leader and their followers is expected to occur with positively intentioned leaders. As those in positions of power demonstrate that they truly care for the best interest of their employees, they create a psychological contract with subordinates who are expected to reciprocate by going above and beyond what is expected of them at work (Robinson & Morrison, 2006). As such, the leader's sincerity and willingness to help their subordinates through difficult workplace social situations is anticipated to increase organizational citizenship behaviours on the part of their subordinates.

Leaders who make themselves aware of the actions of their employees are likely to increase the instrumentality of this form of extra-role behaviour to both individual and organizational goal attainment. By providing praise when individuals take part in organizational citizenship behaviours, leaders increase the likelihood that it will happen again, particularly, when it is demonstrated that these behaviours can aid the organization and likely lead to rewards for the individual. This effect was demonstrated by a recent study by Jiao, Richards, and Zhang (2011). As such, more awareness on the part of the

leader is likely to increase the amount of organizational citizenship behaviours enacted by subordinates.

Actively engaged leaders demonstrate to their followers the importance that they place on the collective. Engaged leaders foster an intense desire in their employees to strive to accomplish more by showing congruence between what they do and what they say (Swindall, 2011). Furthermore, a leader who fosters acceptance of the group's objectives, which can be accomplished by actively leading by example, has been demonstrated to be a strong predictor of organizational citizenship behaviours (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

Exploring the various motives behind this form of extra-role behaviour, it has been suggested that there exist three major motives to act in a way that is consistent with organizational citizenship behaviour. These include (1) pro-social motives or the desire to help others in an effort to be accepted, (2) organizational concern, where the employee internalizes the success of the firm that employs them, and (3) impression management, which focuses on material rewards and avoiding negative evaluations (Rioux & Penner, 2001). The simple fact that organizational citizenship behaviours are not simply based on altruistic motives alone suggests that leader behaviour can have a direct impact on how employees perform supplementary behaviours at work. As such, treating employees with respect through positively intentioned behaviour is anticipated to heighten the desire of subordinates to contribute extra-role behaviours to the organization and to those around them.

Several recent meta-analyses have explored the relationship between leader behaviours and extra-role or organizational citizenship behaviours (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer & Ferris, 2011; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). The results of these studies indicate that both transformational leadership and leader member-exchange constructs have sizeable relationships with the promotion of extra-role behaviour at work. The mechanisms by which leader behaviour acts on employees to contribute beyond their assigned tasks vary from simple reciprocity and obligation to more overarching concepts such as identification with the leader fairness, which tie in with interventionary leadership behaviours. If leaders are perceived as treating their employees with respect through their awareness of the workgroup's dynamic, active engagement with group members, and displaying positive intentions, they are expected to foster increased levels of organizational citizenship behaviours both directed at individual members and the organization as a whole. Taken together, the above evidence suggests the following:

Hypothesis 6a: The three dimensions of the Relational Interventionary Leadership Behaviour Scale will be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviour directed towards the individual (OCB-I).

Hypothesis 6b: The three dimensions of the Relational Interventionary Leadership Behaviour Scale will be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviour directed towards the organization (OCB-O)

4.4.4 Well-being

Psychological well-being has three interwoven, yet integral, parts. The first is that well-being is a subjective evaluation based on previous events. The second part is that people who are psychologically well will experience a higher number of positive emotions and a lower number of negative emotions. Finally, well-being is an evaluation of one's entire life (Diener, 1994).

We derive much of our basic feelings of comfort and meaning from the relationships we develop with others. This is further strengthened by a strong association found between perceptions regarding one's meaning in life and psychological well-being (Zika & Chamberlain, 1992). In a longitudinal latent growth study consisting of six waves over a period of five years, Garst, Frese, and Molenaar (2000) examined the impact of various stressors on individual well-being. Results showed that stressors, particularly those that were social in origin, had the most significant detrimental effects on self-reported measures of well-being. Similarly, in a separate study over a period of one year, workplace conflict negatively impacted psychological well-being significantly more than physical well-being (Spector, Chen, & O'Connell, 2000). When one feels as though they have lost their place in the group, this is anticipated to bring about strong negative emotions. As a result of this interpersonal conflict employees are anticipated to experience detrimental effects to their well-being.

Transformational leaders, as a result of their constant scanning and interest in the well-being of their subordinates will be much more likely to pick up on relational issues among their employees. This active approach to leadership has been shown to positively affect psychological well-being through the mediating mechanism of work meaning in a

recent study of Canadian health and service workers (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee, 2007). They found that transformational leaders can directly affect follower well-being as well as influence employee perceptions of the meaning of their work, which then influences their psychological well-being.

This effect additionally provides evidence for one of the most heralded aspects of transformational leadership, that transformational leaders can transform the beliefs of their followers in such a way that it improves their overall well-being. This proactivity on the part of leaders can serve to change employee perceptions of work. Conversely, passive leadership behaviour, defined as the combination of management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire constructs, demonstrates to employees that their personal well-being is of little import to the leader. In addition to their general apathetic nature, leaders who do not actively engage with their subordinates are unlikely to motivate their employees or take any initiative to bring about positive change over time (Barling et al., 2005). Transferring this to the current taxonomy, we suggest that when employees know that they will not be supported by their leader in interpersonal conflict situations, it is likely to cause heightened levels of stress and lower overall perceptions of well-being

The predisposition towards protecting one's employees is often discussed in the mentoring literature (Kram, 1983) and is likely to occur when the leader is positively intentioned towards their employees. Additional research on authentic leadership suggests that truly genuine leaders are highly self-aware and positive. This overall awareness has been shown to positively impact follower well-being (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). Positive changes in leader-member relationships over a one-year period related positively to improvements in well-being (Feldt, Kinnunen, & Mauno, 2000). All

of this is to suggest that leaders who are actively engaged, aware of the inner workings of their group and are positively intentioned towards the needs of their employees will have a positive effect on employee perceptions of well-being. As such, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 7: The three dimensions of the Relational Interventionary Leadership Behaviour Scale will be positively related to employee perceptions of well-being.

4.4.5 Safety Climate

As one of the most significant contextual factors in the development of a positive safety climate, leadership has long been viewed as an integral part of advancing safe work practices in organizational research (Zohar, 2003). Neal and Griffin (2006) defined *safety climate as* individual perceptions of policies, procedures, and practices relating to safety in the workplace. High-quality leaders are viewed positively in the safety literature because they encourage employees to share information with one another, while empowering subordinates to address safety issues as they come up (Barling, Loughlin, & Kelloway, 2002).

Leaders who take an interest in developing a safe work environment must remain constantly aware of any issues that may inhibit them from accomplishing this goal. In addition, as relationships among co-workers play such an important role in the perception of safety climate (e.g., DeJoy, Shaffer, Wilson, Vandenberg & Butts, 2004), leaders must ensure that all members of their team continue to communicate effectively. It is through this awareness of the social aspect of the workplace that these leaders can make an

impact by ensuring that all safety-specific information is transmitted to all members of the workgroup, regardless of the interpersonal dynamic within the team.

Another means by which leaders develop a safe work climate is through proactive safety-specific behaviour. By actively maintaining close relationships with subordinates, leaders can display their commitment to the overall safety of the team, which has been shown to be an important antecedent of safety-related trust (Conchie & Donald, 2008). As a result, the proactive approach by leaders to develop and maintain a positive interpersonal dynamic within their team is expected to increase the overall perceptions of safety felt by employees as it fosters greater inter-group relations (Griffin & Neal, 2000).

For leaders to foster a positive safety climate, research has suggested that they must show long-term commitment to safety issues, while avoiding punishment as a means of maintaining compliance (Mohamed, 2002). Rather, there is evidence to suggest that positively intentioned behaviour directed at subordinates serves both to increase communication within the group and the prevalence of employees discussing or raising safety concerns (Hofmann & Morgeson, 1999). As such, positively intentioned leadership behaviour is expected to aid in the creation of a stronger safety climate within the workgroup. Taken together, the three behavioural dimensions of the RELIB scale are expected to increase employee perceptions of the overall safety climate of the workplace. As such, the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 8: The three dimensions of the Relational Interventionary Leadership Behaviour Scale will be positively related to perceptions of safety climate.

4.5 Incremental Validity

RELIB is conceptualized as a more comprehensive measure of the inner workings of a work environment. As such, we believe the RELIB construct to be a much more nuanced measure of employee-supervisor relationships than that of LMX or the perceived emotional intelligence of the supervisor and we predict that RELIB will explain additional variance over and above LMX and Emotional Intelligence in each of the criterion variables used in the current research. We therefore propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 9: RELIB will predict workplace ostracism, job satisfaction, OCB-I, OCB-O, well-being and safety climate over and above leader-member exchange.

Hypothesis 10: RELIB will predict workplace ostracism, job satisfaction, OCB-I, OCB-O, well-being and safety climate over and above leader emotional intelligence.

In the following section, the various steps taken to develop a measure for relational leadership interventionary behaviour (RELIB) are discussed. Included in this discussion are the following steps: item generation and review, questionnaire administration, item reduction and confirmatory factor analysis. The overall objective of this scale is to be able to effectively assess the ability of managers and supervisors to intervene in the social relationships of their subordinates at work based on three

interwoven behaviours: the leader's awareness of relational issues, their intentions towards these issues, as well as their desire to take action.

4.6 STUDY 3 METHOD

Using the framework of leadership interventionary behaviours that emerged in Study 1, the two extremes of each of the three proposed continua have been theoretically expanded upon using the extant leadership literature. The next step is to delve more into the roles of the leader and generate items that will correspond to this taxonomy for the development of a survey instrument measuring the extent to which leaders intervene in the interpersonal relationships of their respective workgroups. Once these items have been generated, they will be tested and validated before the questionnaire will be used to test a model linking workplace ostracism to a variety of personal and organizational outcomes. The item generation and review process is outlined below.

4.6.1 Item Generation and Review

The first stage of the scale development and item generation process requires a strong theoretical foundation in order to assess the content of the domain (Hinkin, 1998). Although it may not be possible to measure the domain in its entirety, domain sampling theory states that it is important that the items chosen for the finalized measure adequately represent the construct under study (Ghiselli, Campbell & Zedeck, 1981). Hinkin (1998) describes two major ways in which items can be created. The first is the deductive approach which relies heavily on the theoretical foundations underlying the construct being studied. One of the most important aspects of this method of item generation is the importance placed on an in-depth analysis of the literature to create an accurate definition of the construct. Once created, items may then be generated using the

agreed upon definition, as long as the items are consistent in their emphasis and focus on a single attitude or behaviour.

The second approach to item generation for new measures is the inductive approach. This approach is most useful when constructs do not break down along easily discernible dimensions. The most common method of developing items with this approach is to ask a series of respondents or experts about their feeling related to a given attitude or behaviour. Once these answers are compiled, the responses are then content analyzed based on similarity or put through various sorting processes where multiple judges assess overall agreement (Anderson &Gerbing, 1988). From the categories that are derived using either one of these approaches, items are created, administered and then factor analyzed to evaluate their structure.

The current study used the deductive approach as this construct is hypothesized to break down along three discrete behavioural dimensions, which emerged in Study 1. Rather than examining specific attitudes by surveying experts, the predominant method of item creation comes from a thorough analysis of both interview transcripts and the extant literature. From these two sources, it is expected that the domain of relational leader interventionary behaviour will be adequately sampled.

The purpose of this phase was to generate the largest pool of relevant items in order to provide the most comprehensive representation of leadership relational interventionary behaviour. To do this, we first separated the three factors into opposing ends of a continuum. For example, the proactive factor was split into active and passive dimensions. This was to ensure that sufficient items for each broader construct would be

present. Next, we created definitions for each of these six constructs using the emergent data from Studies 1 & 2 as well as the existing leadership literature. The definition for each construct is provided below:

Active- Leader behaviour that demonstrates an overall engagement in the social climate of the work group

Passive- Leader behaviour that denotes a lack of responsiveness to social disagreements in the workgroup

Unaware- Leader behaviour that displays a strong level of ignorance towards the social climate of the workgroup

Aware- Leader behaviour that shows a conscious attention to the social climate of the workgroup

Negatively Intentioned- Leader behaviour that purposely undermines others

Positively Intentioned- Leader behaviour that shows a genuine interest in the success of others

After adequately defining the six constructs of interest, an initial round of item generation by the researcher was conducted using the interviews from Studies 1 and 2 and a comprehensive review of the extant leadership literature. This process yielded a total of 60 items. After the list was looked over for redundancies and items that did not accurately fit one of the six definitions, a list of 55 items was retained for the first round of expert raters. Of these items, 32 were adapted from existing scales, such as Thoroughgood's (2012) destructive leadership behaviour scale, Liden et al.'s (2008) servant leadership scale and Walumbwa et al.'s (2008) authentic leadership scale.

The interviews with the managers from Study 2 were then used as a means of guiding the item-generation process for the development of a scale of relational leader interventionary behaviours. As such, each manager after having completed the initial interview were provided with the newly developed list of 55 items and were asked to read through the various items and comment on the face validity of each item and whether they would add or remove certain items. The results of these consultations were a net gain of three items from the initial 55 items (3 removed, 2 changed and 6 items added) to a total of 58 items.

The next step was to test the ability for the scale items to adequately reflect the six constructs through the use of an item-sort task (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991). An item-sort task is generally viewed as an important step in the early stages of the scale development process as inconsistent items are removed and researchers get a greater understanding of how various items will hold up under confirmatory factor analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991; Hinkin, 1998).

4.6.2 Procedure of Initial Item-sort Task

Eight doctoral students (4 male) taking part in a Leadership seminar at a large Canadian University were recruited to take part in an initial item-sort task. They were introduced to the task by the researcher where they were given a short explanation of the context of the item-sort task (leader behaviours that either enable or prevent an employee from inclusion and acceptance in workplace relationships) as well as a detailed explanation of what they would be asked to do. Participants were then provided with a list of the six definitions of the RELIB constructs and asked to evaluate each item with regards to the definition to which it corresponded best. If the rater did not feel that the

item could be placed in either of the categories, they were asked to place it in the "?" category that denoted that there was either confusion about the statement or it did not fit with any of the offered definitions.

In this first evaluative stage, we used the proportion of substantive agreement (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991), which assessed the extent to which each respondent placed each item with its intended construct definition. We retained items if there was agreement levels equal to, or above, 90%. In total, 20 items obtained perfect agreement, while an additional 5 had a proportion of agreement equal to, or above, 90%. The resulting set of 25 items broke down as follows: Passive (6), Active, (5), Positive (5), Negative (5), Aware (3) and Unaware (1). Although an adequate number of items resulted from this item-sort task, some of the constructs, particularly the aware and unaware definitions, did not have an adequate number of retained items for factor analysis. As such, an additional 21 items were either adjusted to fit the definitions more appropriately or added to ensure that enough items were retained for each of the six constructs for a total of 46 items.

Ten additional doctoral students from a large Canadian University (4 male) were recruited to complete a second item-sort task via a Qualtrics online survey. They were presented with the exact same introduction and procedure as the first group of coders, with the exception that all materials were provided online rather than with paper and pencil.

After analyzing the proportion of agreement for each of the items over 90%, a total of 28 items were retained along the six constructs, with between four and five items each: Passive (4), Active, (4), Positive (5), Negative (4), Aware (5) and Unaware (5).

Appendix C shows the final set of 28 items that resulted from this process and that were used for the instrument refinement phase of the scale development process.

In the next section, the validity of the newly developed RELIB scale is assessed through a number of means. First, we assess the factor structure of the scale as well as the reliability of the various dimensions. Second, we assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the measure in relation to constructs that are either conceptually close or distant to the proposed relational leadership interventionary behaviour dimension. Third, the RELIB is evaluated in relation to various theoretically relatable constructs to gain a more nuanced understanding of its relationships with other work-relevant outcomes (Nunnally, 1978) that emerged in Study 1. Finally, we assess the test-retest reliability of the scale using the same sample of American workers who responded to the questionnaire across two time periods.

4.6.3 Psychometric properties of the RELIB scale

In order for any measure to be viewed as an accurate representation of the construct that it initially set out to assess, the researcher must effectively document and explain the construct under study and how it relates to other similar constructs. Attempting to find whether this construct is related to similar variables and unrelated to those that are dissimilar is a necessary step to further establish the underlying structure and construct validity of new measures (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Hinkin, 1998). This process can be accomplished by assessing both convergent and discriminant validity. To assess convergent validity, RELIB will be compared to other conceptually similar constructs including leader-member exchange and emotional intelligence as these constructs focus on the emotional bond and the ability to create this bond in the context

of the organization. These two constructs were chosen over other leadership behaviours because they are conceptually closest to the three behavioural dimensions of awareness, proactivity and intention. As such, they were chosen as the best possible comparison points of leadership relational interventionary behaviour.

As the RELIB construct falls under the category of leadership behaviours, discriminant validity will be assessed by comparing it to the leadership behaviour of monitoring the external environment and short-term planning. Both of these behaviours are included in the validated Managerial Practices Survey (Yukl & Lepsinger, 1990) and measure leadership behaviours that are as distantly related to the behaviour in question as possible. As such we will be including these two constructs as well as the non-leadership variable of extent of computer use (Medcof, 1996) and tenure to test the discriminant validity of the RELIB.

Furthermore, the newly developed measure must be able to effectively predict key criteria beyond other previously developed and related scales (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005). As such, the current scale will be tested with regards to its ability to predict various individual and organizational constructs over and above its most closely related construct, leader-member exchange (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and perceived emotional intelligence of the leader. To examine this relationship, a variety of constructs that are anticipated to be theoretically related will be evaluated. These outcomes include workplace ostracism perceptions, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour, psychological well-being, and safety climate.

In the first study, three relational leadership interventionary behaviours were identified as a focal predictor of workplace ostracism experiences and a variety of other individual and organizational outcomes. As such, the objective of this study is to create a valid instrument to assess these leadership behaviours using factor analytic techniques. These three factors include the manager's awareness of the need to intervene, their proactivity in the intervention process, and their specific intentions towards the target. This next stage of the instrument development process will be to (1) confirm the taxonomic structure of leaders' relational interventionary behaviour and (2) outline the nomological network space that this construct inhabits. This strategy aids in both theory and construct development because it evaluates the relationships among latent factors of the construct and its indicators (Long, 1983).

4.6.4 Sample

Five hundred and fifty one (N = 551) American participants were recruited to take part in a study on leader behaviour as part of a Human Intelligence Task (HIT) on Amazon Mechanical Turk, an online labor market which connects researchers and organizations with participant workers (Barger et al., 2012; Mason & Suri, 2011). This method of data collection has been used successfully in psychological research when looking for a random sample (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Participants were invited to participate in a study on leader behaviour and were compensated for their time. Of the 551 participants, 507 completed the entire questionnaire (92%). Several quality check questions were interspersed throughout the survey to ensure high quality data. An example of this type of item is: "I will respond agree to this item". This method has been implemented in several studies (e.g., Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010), to remove

participants who were not conscientiously responding to the items. After removing individuals who had not completed the questionnaire and who incorrectly responded to the three quality check questions, a total of 470 participants (92.7%) were retained for analysis.

The final sample of 470 American employees (263 men and 207 woman) with a mean age of 30.9 years (*SD* = 10.11), each with a supervisor, participated in the study on leader behaviour. Participants were mostly of Caucasian (73.6%), Asian (8.7%) or African American (7.9%) descent and reported working an average of 37.5 (*SD* = 9.12) hours a week. Their mean organizational tenure was 51.9 months (*SD* = 55.31) and position tenure of 38.2 (*SD* = 44.62) months. They also came predominately from the Sales and Service (25.74%), Business (20.85%) and Educational Sectors (19.79%).

All participants were invited to take part in a follow-up study that would take place approximately one month after the completion of the first study for additional compensation. Of the initial 470 participants from the first questionnaire, 377 (187 women, response rate 80.1%) responded to the follow-up questionnaire. Participants were mostly of Caucasian (75.7%), Asian (8.4%) or African American (8.0%) descent and reported working an average of 38.00 (*SD* = 9.09) hours a week. Their mean organizational tenure was 49.2 months (*SD* = 53.68) and their mean position tenure was 37.*19* (*SD* = 42.92). They also came predominately from the Sales and Service (24.9%), Business (21.72%) and Educational Sectors (18.91%). No demographic differences were found between those who responded to the first questionnaire and those who responded to both questionnaires. Of these, 347 worked for the same organization as they did one month prior, 342 were in the same position and 334 had the same supervisor. In order to

get an accurate representation of the stability of the RELIB scale over time, only those who responded and worked under the same supervisor in the same position were included for analysis, thus 334 individuals were retained for the test-retest portion of the current study.

4.6.5 Procedure

Participants for this study were recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk, a popular human productivity crowdsourcing website that enables researchers to compensate anonymous samples of workers from the United States and abroad for completing various tasks including surveys. In this case, participants were offered payment for completion of this first questionnaire.

All participants were asked to log on to a website that was linked to an online survey powered by Qualtrics, a popular survey development website. After reading and signing the consent form, participants were asked to fill out a demographic section with details about their background, education and current employment. At this point, participants were asked as to whether they would be interested in taking part in a follow-up study approximately one month after their completion date. After that, they were presented with various scales including the RELIB scale which focused on the direct supervisor of each employee. Once complete, each participant was given a payment code that was to be inputted back into the Amazon Mechanical Turk website, where they would have the work accepted by the researcher and be compensated for it.

One month later, all respondents who completed the first questionnaire and successfully responded to the screening questions were invited to take part in a follow-up

study. Upon completion of this second survey, participants were compensated for their contribution. The second survey, in addition to including the RELIB scale items in a randomized order, also included health and safety perceptions, citizenship performance, ostracism and job satisfaction scales.

4.6.6 Materials

4.6.6.1 RELIB Scale

Participants completed the 26-item RELIB scale. Responses were provided on a 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) scale. Participants were given the following introduction to the measure: "Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible behaviours that individuals in a leadership position may exhibit. With respect to your own experience with your supervisor, please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of the following behaviours." The metric properties of the RELIB are discussed in the results section.

4.6.6.2 Extent of Computer Use

The extent to which individuals use a computer as part of their daily work routine was measured using a 4-item scale ($\alpha = .87$) developed by Medcof (1996). The scale describes the proportion of the workday that is spent in computer-based activities. Although the original scale also includes an additional examination of the types of cognitive demands required for the computer work, this was not included as it was not deemed conceptually relevant. Sample items include "On a typical working day, what percentage of your work time do you spend seated at and using the computer?" and "On a typical working day, how many hours do you spend at work?" All items are converted

into percentages and averaged to obtain a total computer use proportion. The original Medcof (1996) study reported a coefficient alpha of .77 for the scale.

4.6.6.3 Short-term Planning and External Monitoring

Short-term planning and external monitoring were measured using 4-item scales developed by Yukl and colleagues (Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl & Lepsinger, 1990). Participants were asked to rate the extent to which their managers use these two distinct leadership behaviours using a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*to a great extent)* and ? (*do not know or not applicable*). An example item for short-term planning (α = .84) is "Develops short-term plans for accomplishing the work of the unit" and external monitoring (α = .83) is "Keeps informed about the activities about products and competitors." In the original validation of these scales, Yukl et al. (2002) reported validities for all 15 behaviours between .77 and .88, while Kim and Yukl (1995) reported coefficient alphas for short-term planning of .85 for subordinates and .70 for the leader while external monitoring was .81 for subordinates and .74 for leaders.

4.6.6.4 Leader-member exchange

Leader-member exchange was measured using a 7-item scale (T1 α = .91; T2 α = .89) developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). Examples include: "How well does you leader understand your job problems and needs?" and "I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so." A recent study by Schriesheim, Wu and Cooper (2011) reported a coefficient alpha of .89 and the scale continues to be used in recent studies. Responses are provided on a 1 to 5 scale where response anchors vary by item.

4.6.6.5 Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence was measured using a modified version of the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (Wong & Law, 2002). This sixteen-item measure includes four sub-dimensions identified by Davies, Stankov, and Roberts (1998). These include (a) other's emotion appraisal (T1 α = .88; T2 = .86) "my supervisor is a good observer of others' emotions", (b) use of emotion (T1 α = .79; T2 = .81) "my supervisor is a self-motivated person", (c) regulation of emotion (T1 α = .83; T2 = .83) "my supervisor has good control over his/her own emotions" and (d) self-emotional appraisal. This last component was not included in the current study because it was not pertinent. Items were measured using a 5-point likert scale ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 5 (*totally agree)*. The initial validation of the instrument by Wong and Law (2002) reported alphas of (a) .90 for others' emotion appraisal, (b) .84 for use of emotion, (c) .83 for regulation of emotion and (d) .87 for self-emotion.

4.6.6.6 Workplace Ostracism

The extent to which employees feel as though their presence is not recognized by others was measured using the 10-item Workplace Ostracism Scale (T1 α = .92; T2 α = .93) developed by Ferris et al. (2008). These items are measured on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (*never)* to 7 (*always*) and asked to report on various examples of workplace ostracism that they had experienced over a six month timeframe. Example items include "Others ignored you at work" and "Others refused to talk to you at work." Ferris et al. (2008), in their four samples, reported coefficient alphas of .89, .93, .96 and .94. In a more recent study, Balliet and Ferris (2012) reported a coefficient alpha of .92.

Groups of items were embedded in a larger set of questions to mask the intent of the study.

4.6.6.7 Job Satisfaction

This variable was measured using a 3-item scale (T1 α = .94; T2 α = .95) developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh (1983). The items are rated on a 7-point likert-type scale 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) and sample items include: "All in all, I am satisfied with my job," "In general, I don't like my job," and "In general, I like working here." Previous studies have found this scale to have high reliabilities. For example Siegall and McDonald (1995) reported a coefficient alpha value of .94, while Sanchez, Kraus, White and Williams (1999) reported a coefficient alpha of .85 and were able to distinguish this measure of job satisfaction from other related concepts including high involvement human resources practices and organizational munificence.

4.6.6.8 Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The willingness of employees to display positive behaviours that extend beyond their job description and improve the overall effectiveness of the organization was measured using Lee and Allen's (2002) 16-item Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale. This scale captures citizenship behaviours that are directed either at the organization or at individuals working for the organization. The interpersonal factor (T1 α = .71; T2 α = .78) subscale includes items such as, "I help others who have been absent" and "I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the workgroup." Additionally, the organization-directed factor (T1 α = .91; T2 α = .87) includes items such as, "I keep up with the developments of the organization" and "I

express loyalty toward the organization." Both scales ask respondents to indicate the extent to which they participated in these various behaviours and are assessed using a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (*never)* to 7 (*always*). In their initial validation of the scale, Lee and Allen (2002) reported reliabilities of .83 for Organizational citizenship behaviour directed towards the organization (OCBO) and .88 for Organizational citizenship behaviour directed towards the individual (OCBI). A more recent study by Meyer, Stanley and Parfyonova (2012) reported even higher Cronbach's alphas of .92 for OCBO and .91 for OCBI.

4.6.6.9 Psychological Well-being

The General Health Questionnaire (GHQ; Goldberg, 1972; Mullarkey, Wall, Warr, Clegg, & Stride, 1999) was used to measure psychological well-being. This 12-item measure (T1 α = .89; T2 α = .82) asks participants to identify how often, over a three-month period, they have experienced various events on a scale ranging from 1 (*never)* to 4 (*all the time).* Example items include: "Been able to enjoy your day to day activities?" and "Been able to concentrate on whatever you are doing?" In a recent study using the GHQ, Lloyd, Bond, and Flaxman (2012) reported coefficient alphas of .93, .93, .94 and .91 over four time periods.

4.6.6.10 Safety Climate

Participants who positively responded to whether they believed that safety played an important role in their current position were asked to respond to a three-item scale measuring safety climate (T1 α = .93; T2 α = .84). A sample item for this scale is "safety is given a high priority by management" (Neal & Griffin, 2006). Items for all scales are provided in Appendix D.

4.7 Study 3 Results

4.7.1 Structure of RELIB

Hypothesis 1 states that the RELIB scale is multidimensional consisting of proactivity, awareness and intentionality dimensions. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using oblimax rotation on half of the data ($N = 235$) was conducted using Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2007), and showed an initial three-factor solution to the data. To improve the fit of the model and create a measure that was more concise, we condensed the number of items to those that were most salient to each factor. After several iterations, it became apparent that the inclusion of items from all six hypothesized scales would not produce the desired fit with the data. Once the passive, unaware and negatively intentioned items were removed, the overall fit of the model began to improve. Although half of the items were removed at this stage, it remained consistent with the emergent theory from Studies 1 and 2 as the positive aspects of all three distinct dimensions were retained. The retained Proactive, Awareness and Leader Intentions items were used and the factor loadings were much improved. Next a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted on the remaining awareness, proactivity and intentionality items with modification indices to assess the overall fit of the items. Based on the initial CFA results, each item was assessed based on both the factor loadings and modification indices. After thorough analysis, a further four items (1 from awareness, 1 from proactivity and 2 from intentionality) were removed to improve the overall predictive capacity of the scale resulting in a total of 9 items (3 awareness, 3 proactivity and 3 positively worded intentionality items). Using the finalized 9-item scale (See Appendix E), a three-factor solution provided the best fit to the data and was in accord with to the

three hypothesized leadership behaviours that emerged in Studies 1 & 2: ($\chi 2$ (24) = 44.20, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .99, TLI = .98, SRMR = .03) as it was found to have a greater fit than the single factor solution: ($\chi 2$ (27) = 65.12, RMSEA = .11, CFI = .88, TLI = .86, SRMR = .08). We ran a second CFA with the second half of the data used for the initial EFA and the results were highly comparable ($\chi 2$ (27) = 43.74, RMSEA = .06, CFI = .98, TLI = .97, SRMR = .03). Table 8 presents the results of the CFA with the proposed and alternative factor structures for the second half of the sample. As a final step, we examined whether the three factors were nested within a higher-order factor. Results of this additional CFA yielded a weaker fit than the original three-factor model $\chi 2$ (30) = 73.12, RMSEA = .14, CFI = .82, TLI = .83, SRMR = .11, which provided evidence to support the three factor solution, but not the presence of a higher-order factor.

Although the three-factor model demonstrated the best fit to the data, results indicated high correlations among the three leadership interventionary behaviours including a correlation of .77 between awareness and proactivity, .79 for intentionality and proactivity and .80 for intentions and awareness. As such, we additionally calculated an overall Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour factor in addition to the individual factors. The three factors of proactivity (T1 α = .82; T2 α = .89), awareness (T1 α = .85; T2 α = .85), and intentions (T1 α = .91; T2 α = .90) all showed adequate internal-consistency reliability in addition to the total RELIB scale score (T1 α = .94; T2 α = .95). In an effort to retain parsimony, while staying true to the emergent theory, both the individual and total scores were used in subsequent analyses.

4.7.2 Criterion-Related Validity

Table 9 reports the descriptive statistics, internal consistencies and correlations among all variables using the total sample. To evaluate convergent validity, we assessed the relationship between the RELIB scale and the constructs of LMX and emotional intelligence. Consistent with Hypothesis 2, proactivity ($r = .68$, $p < .01$), awareness ($r = .73$, $p < .01$), intentionality ($r = .80$, $p < .01$), and total RELIB ($r = .80$, $p < .01$) were all positively related to LMX. In addition, Hypothesis 3 stated that subordinate ratings of their supervisor's emotional intelligence would be related to relational leadership interventionary behaviour. The results found that proactivity ($r = .22$, $p < .01$), awareness ($r = .27$, $p < .01$), intentionality ($r= .21$, $p < .01$), and total RELIB ($r = .25$, $p < .01$) were all related to regulation of emotion. Proactivity ($r = .27$, $p < .01$), awareness ($r = .33$, $p < .01$), intentionality ($r = .31$, $p < .01$), and total RELIB ($r = .33$, $p < .01$) were also found to be related to use of emotion. Finally, proactivity ($r = .16$, $p < .01$), awareness ($r = .24$, $p < .01$), intentionality ($r = .19$, $p < .01$), and total RELIB ($r = .21$, $p < .01$) were all found to be related to other's emotion appraisal, thus providing support for Hypothesis 3.

Discriminant validity was evaluated by comparing the relationships between the RELIB scale to two theoretically unrelated constructs, namely employee computer use and organizational tenure and the two leadership behaviours of short-term planning and monitoring the external environment. Contrary to our beliefs short-term planning was related to proactivity ($r = .69$, $p < .01$), awareness ($r = .65$, $p < .01$), intentionality ($r = .68$, $p < .01$), and total RELIB ($r = .73$, $p < .01$). Additionally, contrary to our expectations, monitoring the external environment was related to proactivity ($r = .64$, $p <$

.01), awareness (r= .56, p < .01), intentionality (r = .57, p < .01), and total RELIB (r = .64, p < .01).

Providing evidence to support the claim of discriminant validity, proactivity (r = -.05, p = *ns*), awareness (r = -.03, p = *ns*), intentionality (r = .02, p = *ns*), and total RELIB (r = -.02, p = *ns*) were all uncorrelated with the extent to which employees used computers at work. Additionally, proactivity (r = -.01, p < *ns*); awareness (r = .04, p = *ns*), intentionality (r = .04, p = *ns*), and total RELIB (r = .02, p = *ns*) were all unrelated to job tenure.

In support of Hypothesis 4, proactivity (r = -.25, p < .01), awareness (r = -.25, p < .01), intentionality (r = -.30, p < .01), and total RELIB (r = -.29, p < .01) were negatively related to perceptions of workplace ostracism. Hypothesis 5 stated that all dimensions of the RELIB scale would be related to job satisfaction. The results provide support for this hypothesis as all dimensions including the total scale were positively related to job satisfaction: proactivity (r= .48, p < .01), awareness (r = .48, p < .01), intentionality (r = .53, p < .01), and total RELIB (r= .54, p < .01).

Hypothesis 6a and 6b were fully supported as all RELIB dimensions including the overall scale were positively related to OCB-I; proactivity (r = .25, p < .01), awareness (r= .29, p < .01), intentionality (r = .33, p < .01), and total RELIB (r = .32, p < .01) as well as OCB-O: proactivity (r = .28, p < .01), awareness (r = .34, p < .01), intentionality (r = .35, p < .01), and total RELIB (r = .35, p < .01). In addition, all three dimensions of the RELIB scale as well as the overall scale were positively related to the psychological well-being of the respondents; proactivity (r = .27, p < .01), awareness (r = .31, p < .01),

intentionality (r = .33, p < .01), and total RELIB (r= .33, p < .01), in full support of Hypothesis 7.

Finally, Hypothesis 8 stated that safety climate would be related to employee perceptions of safety climate. Within the sample, 278 individuals reported that safety played an important role in their work and responded to the safety climate items. The results fully support Hypothesis 8 as safety climate was related to all three dimensions of the RELIB scale proactivity (r = .31, p < .01), awareness (r = .36, p < .01), intentionality (r = .38, p < .01), as well as the overall RELIB scale (r = .38, p < .01).

4.7.3 Incremental validity

To the test the hypothesis that the RELIB scale would predict all outcome variables over and above LMX we ran hierarchical regression analyses. Table 10 provides the results from each of the hierarchical regression analyses conducted for each of the six outcome variables. In the first step we added age, tenure and Leader member exchange, next we added the individual dimensions of the RELIB scale. Finally, the overall RELIB score was added in the third step of the regression. This was added to assess whether the individual or aggregated score predicted more of the variance in each of the six outcome variables

In the first regression using the individual dimensions of the RELIB scale there was a significant increase in the variance explained in workplace ostracism perceptions ($\Delta R2$ = .03, p < .01), subordinate job satisfaction (ΔR^2 = .02, p < .01), OCB-I (ΔR^2 = .02, p < .01), OCB-O (ΔR^2 = .05, p < .01), and safety climate (ΔR^2 = .05, p < .01), but not well-being (ΔR^2 = .01, p = *ns*), over and above LMX. In the third step, overall RELIB

predicted workplace ostracism perceptions ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .01$), subordinate job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .01$), OCB-I ($\Delta R2 = .02$, $p < .01$), OCB-O ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$), well-being ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .01$), and safety climate ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$), over and above LMX. As such, Hypothesis 9 was fully supported.

Following the same procedure the capacity for RELIB to predict the outcome variables over and above emotional intelligence was explored with the RELIB factors added separately and together to the regression models. Table 11 provides the results from each of the hierarchical regression analyses conducted for each of the six outcome variables. This resulted in a significant increase in the variance explained in workplace ostracism perceptions ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p < .01$), subordinate job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .20$, $p < .01$), OCB-I ($\Delta R^2 = .05$, $p < .01$), OCB-O ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, $p < .01$), well-being ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$), and safety climate ($\Delta R^2 = .08$, $p < .01$) over and above the three retained aspects of perceived manager emotional intelligence.

The overall RELIB score predicted workplace ostracism perceptions ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$), subordinate job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .19$, $p < .01$), OCB-I ($\Delta R^2 = .05$, $p < .01$), OCB-O ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, $p < .01$), well-being ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$), and safety climate ($\Delta R^2 = .09$, $p < .01$) over and above the predictive capacity of perceived manager emotional intelligence and separate dimensions. As such, Hypothesis 10 was fully supported.

4.7.4 Test-retest reliability

The next step in the validation procedure was to test the ability of the RELIB scale to predict future workplace attitudes. To do so, the same participants were recruited to fill out a similar questionnaire five weeks after taking part in the first study. Table 12

reports the descriptive statistics, internal consistencies, and correlations among all variables, in addition to the initial Time 1 RELIB scale scores. Consistent with our expectations, Time 1 measures of proactivity ($r = .72$, $p < .01$), awareness ($r = .66$, $p < .01$), intentions ($r = .74$, $p < .01$), and overall RELIB ($r = .77$, $p < .01$) were all significantly and positively related to Time 2 measures. This result shows that perceptions of leader interventionary behaviour remain relatively constant over time. In addition, a second CFA run using the three-factor solution provides a good fit to the Time 2 data $\chi 2$ (24) = 46.43, RMSEA = .07,CFI = .95, TLI = .95, SRMR = .04), which was better than the one factor solution, thus providing additional support for Hypothesis 1.

Regressions were conducted to further define relationships between the individual and aggregate RELIB scale dimensions and the proposed outcome variables. In the first model, after controlling for age and tenure we added the three Time 1 RELIB dimensions and each of the six Time 2 outcome variables into separate regressions. The second test included a Time 1 aggregated RELIB scale score as well as the six Time 2 outcome variables.

In terms of individual Time 1 RELIB dimensions to predict Time 2 outcomes, intentionality was related to Workplace Ostracism ($\beta = -.33$, $p < .001$), Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .28$, $p < .01$), OCB-I ($\beta = .22$, $p < .01$) and Safety Climate ($\beta = .55$, $p < .01$). Awareness was related to OCB-O ($\beta = .27$, $p < .01$), and marginally related to safety climate ($\beta = .18$, $p < .10$). Finally, Proactivity was related to job satisfaction ($\beta = .23$, $p < .01$) and well-being ($\beta = .15$, $p < .05$). Because all of the measures were collected from the same source, we examined whether the study variables were inflated by common method bias by means of the variance inflation factor (VIF) values. All factors ranged from 1.079 to

3.281, all of which were well below the 10.0 standard set forth by Ryan (1997). This suggests that multicollinearity did not bias the data in any meaningful way. The results of this analysis are shown in Figure 1 and Table 13.

The next model used the total Time 1 RELIB scores to predict Time 2 outcomes. In this model the overall RELIB scale significantly predicted all proposed variables: Workplace Ostracism (β= -.24, $p < .001$), Job Satisfaction (β= .46, $p < .001$), Well-being (β= .25, $p < .001$), OCB-0 (β= .34, $p < .001$), OCB-I (β= .27, $p < .001$), and Safety Climate (β= .34, $p < .001$). The results of this analysis are shown in Figure 2 and Table 13.

4.8 Study 3 Discussion

The results of Study 3 lend further support to the findings of Studies 1 and 2 where we were able to develop a scale of relational leadership interventionary behaviour that was both useful and distinct. The three validated dimensions of leader proactivity, awareness and positive intentionality were all able to accurately predict different outcomes including workplace ostracism perceptions, job satisfaction, citizenship performance, well-being and safety climate both at the moment of the initial questionnaire and five weeks later. The results also provide evidence for the usefulness of this scale as both a measure of three discrete behavioural dimensions as well as an overall construct predicted the above mentioned outcomes including over and above LMX and emotional intelligence. Additionally, the three RELIB scale dimensions of proactivity, awareness and intentionality were associated with different Time 2 outcomes.

Given these results, leaders who demonstrate to their subordinates that they will act to maintain a positive interpersonal dynamic within the workgroup are likely to benefit from a variety of positive individual and organizational outcomes initially as well as over time as demonstrated by our test-retest measures spaced five weeks apart. The results also demonstrate that although this construct has not yet been highlighted as an important set of leadership behaviours, there are many leaders who naturally demonstrate these behaviours and benefit from this as a result. The objective of this study, however, is to highlight the actions of these particular leaders and to increase the overall understanding of how this form of voluntary social behaviour can greatly impact the workgroup as a whole.

We were also able to provide evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of the RELIB scale. The scale was found to be related to LMX and employee reports of supervisor emotional intelligence. Contrary to what was hypothesized, however, two conceptually distant leadership behaviours of short-term planning and external environment monitoring were significantly related to the newly developed RELIB scale. One potential explanation can be that leaders who demonstrate proactivity, awareness and positive intentions in their interactions with subordinates also display proactive behaviour in other areas of their work including the development of effective short-term strategies and overall awareness of their competitive environment. Future research could examine whether interventionary leaders display other beneficial leadership behaviours from the standpoint of their subordinates.

There is evidence that the three factors included in the RELIB scale differ in their ability to predict effects depending on the outcome variable used. Importantly, the

intentions dimension of the RELIB scale was found to be the best predictor of almost all outcomes, with the proactivity dimension only able to accurately predict job satisfaction and the awareness dimension able to predict only safety climate and organization-directed citizenship behaviour. This suggests, based on the current findings that subordinate perceptions of leader behavioural intentions is the most important of the three behaviours to develop. There are gains to be made, however, in integrating each of these three leadership behaviours into one's daily repertoire in order to reap the greatest benefits.

4.8.1 Limitations

One limitation to the current study is that only the direct supervisor of respondents was assessed. Although the current study provides us with a variety of interesting results using this dyadic framework, the results of Studies 1 and 2 suggest that there may be potential effects of interventionary behaviour from multiple levels of the organizational hierarchy. As such, we will explore this question in more detail in the following study.

A second limitation to the current study is that we relied exclusively on employee self-reports with regards to all outcome variables. Self-report data have been criticized for being biased by a number of methodological artifacts (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). There are arguments, however, that suggest that self-reports are appropriate for private events such as workplace ostracism, job satisfaction, safety climate and well-being (Chan, 2009). Issues arise, however, when asking employees to rate their own citizenship behaviour. To speak to this point, Organ and Ryan (1995) state that "the most notable moderator of these correlations appears to be the use of self-

versus other-rating of OCB; self-ratings are associated with higher correlations, suggesting spurious inflation due to common method variance" (p. 775). Future research should use managerial ratings to compare results of RELIB ratings on task and organizational citizenship performance.

One of the most significant findings of Study 1 was the combined influence of two levels of supervision on perceptions of workplace ostracism. This is consistent with the research of Sy, Cote and Saavedra (2005) who found that leaders can have an almost contagious impact on the mood and overall group process of the team. By approaching issues in a way that demonstrates an overall awareness of the nuance of the situation in addition to a positive and proactive approach, we believe that there can be synergistic benefits to having both the manager and supervisor demonstrating these positive leadership attributes. As such, we will test how subordinate perceptions of interventionary behaviour at different levels of hierarchy affect workplace ostracism, safety climate, perceptions of interpersonal treatment and citizenship performance. Particularly, we will test whether direct supervisors or managers drive results or whether there are additive effects when they are measured together.

In the next study, we will again set out to test the effectiveness of the newly developed Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour Scale (RELIB) to assess the extent to which the proactivity, awareness and intention of leaders at different levels of the organization can predict organizational outcomes in different ways. We will attempt to answer this question by asking employed members to rate the extent to which both their direct and upper-level manager display the behaviours associated with relational

leadership interventionary behaviour and assess whether these reports have different impacts on a variety of individual and organizational outcomes.

CHAPTER 5

5. STUDY 4: SUPERVISOR AND MANAGER STUDY

The objective of Study 4 is to examine whether subordinate reports of RELIB from multiple levels of the organization have an effect on various outcomes. The rationale for this exploratory study comes from qualitative results from Studies 1 and 2. These results indicate that leaders at multiple levels of the organizational hierarchy had important and often different effects on subordinates. In addition, many respondents from Study 1 also described how supervisors and managers often acted differently based on the RELIB taxonomy. With this in mind, we set out to explore whether employee perceptions of supervisor and manager interventionary behaviour are positively related and can adequately predict the outcome variables used in Study 3. As such, we propose the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 11: Upper manager relational leadership interventionary behaviour will be positively related to supervisory relational leadership interventionary behaviour.

Hypothesis 12: Upper manager and supervisory relational leadership interventionary behaviour will be negatively related to a) workplace ostracism and positively related to b) Job Satisfaction, c) OCB-Individual, d) OCB-Organization, e) Safety Climate, f) Well-being.

One question that has yet to be resolved in the literature is the way in which leaders at different hierarchical levels affect employee behaviours. Empirical research in the leadership domain has been largely mixed with some scholars finding support for supervisors having a greater impact on subordinate behaviour due largely to higher levels of direct interaction (e.g., Brandes, Dharwadkar, & Wheatley, 2004; Zierden, 1980). Others, conversely, point to upper-level managers as being better able to influence subordinates because they are more charismatic due to their ability to focus on the vision of the organization, and because they have more influence over those who they supervise (e.g., Grosjean, Resnick, & Dickson, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramarniam, 1996).

Rather than pick a particular side in this debate, we believe that both upper managers and direct supervisors will have an effect on employees. We put forward the notion of a trickle-down model (e. g., Aryee, Chen, Sun & Debrah, 2007; Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes & Salvador, 2009) of relational interventionary leadership in which the actions of the top manager influences the relational interventionary leadership behaviour of the supervisor which, in turn influences the behaviours of the subordinates that they supervise. This has been shown in a number of studies where top managers display certain behaviours which are internalized and displayed by lower level managers in an effort to gain favour from the leader above (e.g., Aryee, et al., 2007; Bass, Waldman, Avolio & Bebb, 1987; Mayer et al., 2009; Ruiz et al., 2011; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). Thereby, we propose the following additional hypotheses:

Hypothesis 13: Supervisory relational leadership interventionary behaviour mediates the relationship between upper management relational leadership interventionary behaviour and a) workplace ostracism, b) job satisfaction, c) OCB-I, d) OCB-O, e) safety climate and f) well-being.

Finally, we explore whether mood at the time of survey completion has an effect on subordinate responses on the RELIB. We examine this research question in an effort to reduce the methodological bias present in self-report data which is used in the current study (Williams & Anderson, 1994; Williams, Gavin & Williams, 1996). As we believe evaluations of relational leadership interventionary behaviour to be an evaluation of a broad set of leader behaviours made over a period of time, we expect these evaluations to remain relatively stable, regardless of the mood of the participant at the time of responding. Given that mood may interfere with the accurate assessment of relational leadership interventionary behaviour, we will assess the levels of positive and negative affect of each participant at the time of responding. If a null relationship is found between the RELIB dimensions and the affect variables, we have evidence to support that mood does not bias responses on this scale.

5.1. STUDY 4 METHOD

5.1.1 Sample

219 employees took part in this study. The mean age of the participants was 24.29 years (*SD* = 7.67) and the group spoke an average of 2.61 languages (*SD* = 0.91). Respondents were mostly of Caucasian (66.64%), East Asian (10.12%) or Arab (7.14%) descent and reported working an average of 23.51 hours (*SD* = 13.94) hours a week. Their mean organizational tenure was 53.20 months (*SD* = 63.14) and position tenure of

25.91 months (*SD* = 35.16). They also came predominately from the Sales and Service (47.32%), Business (23.61%) and Educational Sectors (13.91%), while 46.14% of respondents reported working in an organization that was smaller than 50 employees.

5.1.2 Procedure

Data were collected using the Human Participation in Research (HPR) subject pool at the John Molson School of Business at Concordia University. This program provides participants with the opportunity to take part in academic research for the opportunity to receive extra credits towards an introductory business course. Interested participants were encouraged to sign up to the website where students have the choice to take part in a variety of research studies for credit. Because of the structure of the website, researchers are able to set certain parameters that encourage only certain groups to respond to the questionnaire. In this case, only students who were currently working were invited to participate in the study.

The survey consisted of various scales including, well-being, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour, workplace ostracism, and safety perception if they considered safety to be an important factor of their work. Participants were also asked to complete the nine-item RELIB measure that was developed in Study 3 for the two closest levels of leader in their organization. First, participants were asked to rate the behaviours of the supervisor with whom they had the most interaction over the course of a normal work week. Shortly after responding to some additional questions, these same participants were asked if they interacted with an additional supervisor or manager as part of their work. If they responded yes, they were then asked whether that second leader was of lower or higher status than the supervisor who was reported on previously. Upon

responding to these questions, they were directed to a second RELIB scale that focused on the behaviours of this second supervisor or manager. Of the initial 219 employees who responded to the questionnaire, 158 (72%) reported interacting with a second manager

5.1.3 Materials

5.1.3.1 RELIB Scale

Participants completed the nine-item RELIB measure from Study 3 for up to two levels of leaders with whom the participant had direct contact.

5.1.3.2 Affect

The short-form version (Thompson, 2007) of the original PANAS scale (Tellegen, Watson & Clark, 1988) was used to assess both positive (α = .80) and negative affect (α = .90) experienced at the moment the scale was completed. Each of the ten items was rated on a five point scale (1 = *I currently do not feel this way*) to (5 = *I currently feel this way*). An example item for positive affect is *alert* and for negative is *nervous*.

5.1.3.3 Outcome Measures

The outcome measures used for the current study were the same ones that were used in Study 3. These included Workplace Ostracism (α = .95), Job Satisfaction (α = .91), Organizational Citizenship Behaviour towards the organization (α = .70) and the individual (α = .84) as well as Safety Climate (α = .94) and Well-being (α = .81). All items were rated on a 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) scale. Complete information on these scales can be found in the method section of Study 3 located in Chapter 4 and a full listing of all items is available in Appendix D.

5.1.3.4 Control Measures

For subsequent analysis, we used four control measures to reduce omitted-variable bias. These included the age, gender and position tenure of the participant as these may all affect the way in which subordinates may rate their leader. In addition, we chose to control for the number of group members who were in a particular team as this may also affect the relationship that subordinates may have with their leader.

5.2 Study 4 Results

Means, standards deviations and inter-correlations are presented in Table 14. Prior to data analysis, we ensured that all leaders were placed in hierarchical order based on the item asking participants to rate the hierarchical status of their leaders. The results of the CFA based on factor loadings and modification indices confirms a three-factor model for both supervisors ($\chi 2$ (24) = 78.13, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .96, TLI = .94, SRMR = .03) and managers ($\chi 2$ (24) = 65.28, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .95, TLI = .94, SRMR = .04). Full comparisons of the supervisor and manager factor structures are presented in Table 15. In addition, the various dimensions of the RELIB scale were found to show adequate reliability: $\text{Proactivity}_{\text{Supervisor}}$ (α =.85), $\text{awareness}_{\text{Supervisor}}$ (α = .86), $\text{intentions}_{\text{Supervisor}}$ (α =.90), $\text{overall}_{\text{Supervisor}}$ (α = .94) and $\text{proactivity}_{\text{Manager}}$ (α =.84), $\text{awareness}_{\text{Manager}}$ (α = .86), $\text{intentions}_{\text{Manager}}$ (α =.93), and $\text{overall}_{\text{Manager}}$ (α = .95).

Hypothesis 11 predicted that manager RELIB ratings would be positively related to supervisory RELIB. Regression analyses revealed a positive relationship between manager and supervisory awareness (β = .22, $p < .05$), proactivity (β = .41, $p < .01$), intentions (β = .29, $p < .01$) and, total RELIB ratings (β = .34, $p < .01$), thus providing evidence to support Hypothesis 11.

Hypothesis 12 predicted that both manager and supervisory dimensions and overall RELIB would be related to a) workplace ostracism b) job satisfaction, c) OCB-individual, d) OCB-organization, e) safety climate and f) well-being. Regression analyses revealed a direct negative relationship between supervisor ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .01$), and manager ($\beta = -.22$, $p < .01$) RELIB ratings on perceptions of workplace ostracism, while supervisor intentionality ($\beta = -.37$, $p < .01$) and manager proactivity ($\beta = -.29$, $p < .10$) were found to predict workplace ostracism when examining the individual RELIB dimensions. Both supervisor ($\beta = .50$, $p < .01$) and manager ($\beta = .36$, $p < .01$) ratings of RELIB were positively related to job satisfaction, while supervisor intentionality ($\beta = .50$, $p < .01$) as well as manager proactivity ($\beta = .28$, $p < .10$) were related to job satisfaction. The results also show that both supervisor ($\beta = .26$, $p < .01$) and manager ($\beta = .33$, $p < .01$) ratings of RELIB were related to OCBO-O. However, no individual dimensions from either the supervisor or manager reports were able to predict OCB-O. In addition, supervisor ($\beta = .31$, $p < .01$) and manager ($\beta = .30$, $p < .01$) ratings of RELIB were related to OCB-I, while supervisor intentionality ($\beta = .22$, $p < .05$) was the only individual dimension to predict OCB-I. For Hypothesis 12e Supervisor ($\beta = .42$, $p < .01$) and manager ($\beta = .45$, $p < .01$) RELIB ratings significantly related to safety climate perceptions, while these were related to supervisor intentionality ($\beta = .65$, $p < .01$) as well as manager proactivity ($\beta = 1.03$, $p < .01$), and awareness ($\beta = 47$, $p < .01$). Finally, regression analyses revealed a marginal relationship between supervisor ($\beta = .11$, $p< .10$), and a significant relationship between manager ($\beta = .18$, $p< .05$) ratings and well-being. However, no individual dimensions from supervisor or manager reports were able to

predict well-being. Thus Hypothesis 12 a through e were fully supported and Hypothesis 12f was partially supported. See Table 16 through 19 for complete results.

Hypothesis 13 predicted that supervisory RELIB would mediate the relationship between manager RELIB and a) workplace ostracism b) job satisfaction, c) OCB-Individual, d) OCB-Organization, e) safety climate and f) well-being. To assess these mediational hypotheses, we employed PROCESS, a tool developed by Hayes (2013), which can be added free of charge to any recent version of the SPSS data analysis program. PROCESS is an extremely adaptable program which can be used to compute mediation, moderation and process modeling analysis. We employed the PROCESS program to detect the influence of manager RELIB ratings on the various outcomes mediated by supervisor RELIB ratings. To do this we used the bias-corrected bootstrapping method, which has become recognized as one of the most reliable ways of running mediation analysis (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Bootstrapping is a resampling strategy for calculating population coefficient estimates using numerous resamples of the data. Of particular interest to scholars is that this method provides confidence intervals around the estimated coefficient, such that we can be confident with a high level of accuracy that the effect is present.

To test the various sub-components of Hypothesis 13, we examined the results of the bootstrap process for indirect effects mentioned above. As the program only offers a single independent and dependent variable, we used the aggregated supervisor and manager RELIB scores. In Table 20, we provide indirect effect estimates along with both symmetric and 95% bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals for the path estimates of each of the six outcomes after 10,000 bootstrap samples. The results show

that the relationship between manager RELIB and workplace ostracism, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour directed towards the organization, and safety climate were mediated by supervisory RELIB. However, supervisory RELIB did not mediate the relationship between manager RELIB and organizational citizenship behaviour directed towards the individual and subordinate well-being thus confirming Hypothesis 13 a, b, d & e, but not c and f. All mediation models are presented in Figure 3.

Finally we explored whether positive and negative affectivity would interfere with subordinate reports on the various RELIB dimensions. Evidence from both supervisors and managers suggest that the current mood of the subordinate had no effect on their response tendencies (See Table 12). Negative affect was unrelated to all supervisory RELIB ratings of proactivity (r = .13, *ns*), awareness (r = .14, *ns*), positively intentioned (r = .08, *ns*) and aggregate ratings r = .12, *ns*) in addition to all manager RELIB ratings: proactivity (r = .06, *ns*), awareness (r = .05, *ns*), positively intentioned (r = .07 *ns*) and in the aggregate (r = .06, *ns*). The same result was found for positive affect and its relationship with employee ratings of supervisor RELIB: proactivity (r = .05, *ns*), awareness (r = .06, *ns*), positively intentioned (r = .02, *ns*) and in the aggregate (r = .05, *ns*) in addition to all manager RELIB ratings: proactivity (r = .04, *ns*), awareness (r = .04, *ns*), positively intentioned (r = .03, *ns*) and in the aggregate (r = .04, *ns*), thus providing evidence to support the assertion that current mood does not interfere with RELIB responses of supervisors or managers.

5.3 Study 4 Discussion

The results of Study 4 provide additional support for the validity and predictive capacity of the RELIB scale, in addition to providing us with several notable findings.

First, we found that subordinate reports of supervisor and manager RELIB were positively related to the six outcome variables used in Study 3. This is consistent with the findings from Study 1 which revealed that employees could differentiate between leaders at different hierarchical levels on the three RELIB behaviours of proactivity, awareness and intentionality. Furthermore, we found evidence for the trickle-down model (Aryee, Chen, Sun & Debrah, 2007) where relationships between manager RELIB ratings and workplace ostracism, job satisfaction, OCB-O and safety climate were mediated by supervisor RELIB. This result is important because it shows how leader behaviour at multiple levels of the hierarchy affects employees, particularly in the present case where our construct focuses on actions taken by leaders to promote inclusivity.

We also found that the correlations between manager and subordinate reports of the various RELIB dimensions were not highly correlated with one another. This result is of note, because it documents how employees are able to distinguish between two separate leaders in their organization on these behavioural components. It also provides additional evidence to the validity of the scale as individuals can rate separate leaders on the same scale and not be biased by their previous response.

Finally, we found that responses to the RELIB for both supervisors and managers were unaffected by positive or negative mood. This provides evidence to suggest that these evaluations are not overly affected by the current emotional state of the target, thus reducing the possibility of methods effects. Although we have provided initial evidence of the absence of method effects, future research could use other more stringent study designs, such as studies asking half of team members to rate their supervisors and the

other half to rate their manager or more longitudinal-based methodologies to further rule them out.

In the next study, we set out to examine whether team members can come to an agreement on the RELIB assessments of their leader and examine whether these evaluations affect supervisor-rated employee task and citizenship performance. This is an important aspect of the scale development process, particularly in the leadership literature as the aggregation of subordinate reports to the team or leader level has become an increasingly important area of research in this domain (Yammarino & Dansereau; 2008; Yammarino, Dionne, Chun, & Dansereau, 2005). The reason for this is that leadership as a construct is viewed as a multi-level phenomenon.

By demonstrating that team members can reach similar conclusions on these leader behavioural constructs, we further the conceptual and theoretical development of the RELIB taxonomy and provide evidence to the assertion that leaders display these behaviours in a generalized way as it is generally well discerned by their subordinates. If the RELIB scale fails to reach group agreement, however, we can then assume that RELIB functions more like LMX (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), whereby each RELIB behaviour is displayed in a more individualized fashion to the target subordinate. Using evidence from Studies 1 & 2, however, we believe that leaders will display a more generalized form of these behaviours as these actions are conspicuous and discernable by all. As such, we expect group members to be able to agree on the level of each of the three RELIB behaviours when aggregated to the team level. To do so, we separately survey subordinates and supervisor from a number of project teams working in an IT firm

at a large Canadian organization. The following chapter discusses the details of this final study.

CHAPTER 6

6. STUDY 5

The objectives of Study 5 are two-fold. First and foremost, we want to assess whether subordinates can reach an agreement with regards to the three dimensions of the RELIB scale. We expect that because each of the proposed leadership behaviours are perceivable by employees and generalized to the social climate of the group, we expect employees to agree to a large extent on the way their supervisor behaves with regards to their relational interventionary leadership behaviours. As such, we propose the following hypothesis:

> ***Hypothesis 14: Subordinates will demonstrate a high level of agreement regarding the relational leadership interventionary behaviour of their supervisor.***

Secondly, we wanted to assess how employee perceptions of supervisor relational interventionary leadership behaviour contribute to supervisor ratings of task and citizenship performance. Based on the results of Studies 3 and 4, we have evidence to suggest that the way employees perceive the relational leadership interventionary behaviour of their supervisor will have an effect on the level of citizenship behaviour that they display. We expect the same effect for task performance as employees are likely to put in more effort when they know that they will be supported by their direct supervisor. As this is an emerging construct, we will be assessing RELIB in two ways. The first will be the direct method where each employee will rate their superior and we will relate this

to their supervisor's report of their task and citizenship performance. Secondly, we will calculate the level of agreement of each team and, if members agree, a mean score will be given to each supervisor. This score will then be disaggregated and used as a second way of assessing the relationship between RELIB and performance. As such, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 15: Employee perceptions of supervisory relational leadership interventionary behaviour will be positively related to supervisory reports of a) task performance and b) citizenship behaviour

Hypothesis 16: Team perceptions of supervisory relational leadership interventionary behaviour will be positively related to supervisory reports of a) task performance and b) citizenship behaviour

6.1 STUDY 5 METHOD

6.2 Sample

A total of 63 employees from an IT department of a large Canadian organization were recruited to take part in a workplace study by means of an online survey. In addition, supervisors of these respondents were also contacted and asked to complete their own separate survey that would be used to assess their own perceived leadership interventionary behaviour as well as the task and organizational citizenship behaviour of their employees. As was the case that managers supervised multiple employees, efforts were taken to make the length of each individual employee evaluation as short as possible.

The final sample included fifty employees (39 male and 11 female) with a mean age of 37.20 (*SD* = 10.05) years and an average tenure of 89.80 months (*SD* = 105.03). It also included six managers (all male) with a mean age of 46.14 (SD = 8.23) years and average tenure of 243.14 months (SD = 173.52). Of the employees, 42 (82%) of them were permanent employees and the rest of them were temporary employees hired from a third-party contractor. The makeup of this group was predominately Caucasian (66%), Arab (10%), East Asian (8%) and Latin American (8%) and 68% of employees were born in Canada. The managers were predominately Caucasian (86%) and Latin American (24%), while 71% of the managers were born in Canada.

6.3 Procedure

The manager of an IT department of a large Canadian organization was approached to seek the participation of his group in this study. After giving his consent, the lead researcher held a meeting for all supervisors outlining the procedure of the study, and all questions pertaining to the procedure were answered. Once this meeting took place, all supervisors agreed to take part in the study.

Employees and supervisors were given distinct online questionnaires. Employees rated the interventionary behaviour of their supervisor, while supervisors rated the task and citizenship performance of each of their employees. Upon completion, all employees and supervisors were given the choice to select a $5 gift card from either an online bookstore or a coffee shop to thank them for their contribution and compensate them for their time. Responses were matched by having all employees indicate the name of their supervisor prior to completing the RELIB scale.

6.4 Measures

6.4.1 RELIB Scale

All subordinates were asked to name and rate their perceptions of the relational leadership interventionary behaviour of their supervisor using the 9-item RELIB scale as described in Study 3.

6.4.2 Subordinate Performance

Supervisors completed a 3-item measure of subordinates' performance developed by Peterson et al. (2011) for each of their subordinates. The items are all measured on a 5-point likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). The items were averaged to form total scores for subordinate performance ($\alpha = .87$).

6.4.3 Citizenship Performance

Supervisors completed a 3-item measure of subordinates' citizenship performance developed by Hui, Lam, and Law (2000) for each of their subordinates. The items are all measured on a 5-point likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). The items were averaged to form total scores for subordinate performance ($\alpha = .74$). All items can be found at the bottom of Appendix D.

6.5 Study 5 Results

Means, standard deviations and inter-correlations of all measured variables are reported in Table 21. Within-team agreement was measured using the (r_{wg}) index (James, Demaree & Wolf, 1984) and rectangular distribution on the leadership variables in question. The results showed an appropriate agreement across ratings r_{wg}(Active) = .85 r_{wg}(Aware) = .84 r_{wg}(Intentions) = .91 r_{wg}(Overall RELIB) = .87 and good reliability;

Proactivity (α = .86), Awareness (α = .89), Intentions (α = .91), and Overall RELIB (α = .95). This provides evidence that team members perceive their supervisor's relational interventionary behaviour similarly and support to Hypothesis 14.

In terms of task performance and organizational citizenship behaviour, we examined employee reports in two ways. First, we used direct RELIB ratings from subordinates. These reports were related to supervisor proactivity (r = .31, p < .05), intentions (r =.35, p < .05) and overall RELIB (r = .30, p < .05). Second, we disaggregated team-level reports of supervisor RELIB so that each subordinate was given the average supervisor scores from their workgroup. This was done due to the low sample size which limited our ability to aggregate the data to the team level. Using these scores, no disaggregated team reports of RELIB were related to task performance, however, team reports of supervisor awareness were positively related to organizational citizenship behaviour (r = .31, p < .05).

In order to test the effects of individual RELIB reports on task and citizenship performance, we ran additional hierarchical regressions using both individual and disaggregated supervisory RELIB ratings. Tables 22 and 23 provide the results of these hierarchical regressions for individual and disaggregated RELIB scale scores. For individual ratings of supervisor RELIB leader intentions marginally predicted task performance (β = .55, p < .10), while the overall individual supervisor RELIB scores predicted task performance (β = .33, p < .05). No individually reported RELIB dimension, however, was able to predict subordinate citizenship performance. Overall, individual reports of the three RELIB dimensions were able to predict subordinate task performance ($\Delta R^{2 =}$ .15, p < .01), as well as individual reports of the combined RELIB

score ($\Delta R^2 = .09$, $p < .01$). Neither the separate dimensions ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p > .05$) nor the overall RELIB scores ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p > .05$) were able to predict citizenship performance. Thus, Hypothesis 15a was supported, while no support was found for Hypothesis 15b

Using the disaggregated team reports, which was the mean RELIB supervisory score on each dimensions based on subordinates reports, only supervisor awareness predicted subordinate citizenship performance ($\beta = .89$, $p < .05$). No disaggregated leadership variable, however, was able to predict subordinate task performance. Overall, only the disaggregated individual reports of supervisor RELIB was able to predict subordinate citizenship performance ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, $p < .01$), but not the combined scores ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p > .05$), while neither score was able to predict task performance. As such, Thus, Hypothesis 16b was supported, while no support was found for Hypothesis 16a.

6.6 Study 5 Discussion

The results of this study demonstrate that individuals working under the same supervisor can come to a high level of agreement on all dimensions of the RELIB scale. In addition, the findings from the present study lend more credence to the RELIB construct by providing evidence that the way in which leaders engage in the interpersonal landscape of their team can have a direct impact on the way in which subordinates perform at work. The results show that by using team-level disaggregated reports RELIB, we were able to predict organizational citizenship behaviour and individual-level RELIB was able to predict task performance, as rated by two different sources.

For leaders interested in improving task and citizenship of their employees, we document two distinct paths to these forms of employee performance. First, to improve

task performance, leaders can focus on demonstrating to individual members of the workgroup that they show their positive intentions by displaying true concern for the effective functioning of the group. A second method is to display all of the requisite leadership interventionary behaviours to team members. One justification for using individual, as opposed to aggregated reports of, relational leadership interventionary behaviour for explaining task performance is the importance of ensuring that the leader is perceived as authentic (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). With increased contact, employees are better able to discern whether the behaviour of the leader is consistent, particularly in the case of intentions. The result is that subordinates are more willing to perform at a higher level for leaders that they trust (Colquitt, Scott & LePine, 2007) and feel are authentic (Peterson, Walumbwa, Avolio, & Hannah, 2012)

To develop citizenship performance within the team, we propose a slightly different tactic based on the results of this study. Rather than focusing on individual members as is the case for task performance, leaders should consistently demonstrate to their team as a whole that they are vigilant of emerging interpersonal issues within the group. As team-aggregated scores of leader awareness was the single greatest predictor of citizenship performance, it is important for leaders to ensure that they take an active interest in how subordinates interact with one another and remain watchful of any issues that may cause disturbances within the group. A possible explanation for why citizenship performance was only predicted by team-aggregate scores is that group shared beliefs in their leader, particularly if they are positive and viewed consistently by all, may lead to the development of OCB as a group norm (Feldman, 1984). In addition, leaders who

encourage teamwork, such as those who demonstrate relational leadership interventionary behaviour, are more likely to increase individual levels of OCB (Pearce & Herbik, 2004).

We offer a word of restraint on the results of the present study as they come only from a sample of 50 workers and 6 managers. As such, the implications of the study must be applied with caution given that the final sample was relatively small. Although we concede that more research needs to be done to categorically conclude that subordinate reports on the RELIB can be consistently aggregated to a higher level, the current study provides us with some encouraging results in this domain.

CHAPTER 7

7. GENERAL DISCUSSION

Overall, the present set of studies has served to identify an important aspect of leader behaviour that has not yet received adequate attention in the literature, namely the ability for leaders to effectively manage the interpersonal dynamic of their workgroup, with a particular emphasis on reducing perceptions of workplace ostracism. Through three discrete behaviours including demonstrating positive intentions toward subordinates, maintaining awareness of the interpersonal climate of the workgroup, and remaining proactive in the face of disagreement, leaders are better able to manage conflict in their workgroup, foster inclusiveness and increase individual contributions from team members. Across a set of five studies using both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, the results provide evidence to the importance of this emergent construct from both a theoretical and practical standpoint and several findings are notable.

We must emphasize, however, that this was not the initial focus of this research. Rather, the original focus was to explore the effects of workplace ostracism on well-being. While an attempt was made to answer this question in Study 1, the focus was shifted somewhat to the impact that these three emergent leadership behaviours had on reducing employee perceptions of workplace ostracism as it seemed to play a significant role in the overall well-being of targets. As the benefits of these leadership actions became apparent, an increasing level of emphasis was placed on extending our understanding of this nascent phenomenon. An attempt was made, however, to integrate workplace ostracism into the remaining four studies of relational leadership

interventionary behaviour and a consistent link was found showing that these leadership behaviours helped to reduce perceptions of workplace ostracism across a wide range of work-groups and organizations.

From the onset of Study 1, targets of workplace ostracism described the significant impact that leaders of their workgroup had on their overall experience. From these retellings, three primary leadership behaviours were consistently described as playing an important role in whether the supervisor or manager in question would promote or discourage ostracism within their group. These three leader behaviours were described as a general awareness of the social environment of the group, a desire to be proactive in dealing with issues that arise between members of the group and the general intentions of the leader to create an inclusive workplace.

Study 2 served to reinforce this emergent leadership theory and its ability to impact experiences of workplace ostracism by using a sample of manager interviews to understand how they deal with difficult social situations, including workplace ostracism, within their work teams. The results of this study served to confirm that managers articulated their actions along very similar lines to the three relational interventionary behaviours described in Study 1. In addition, it also helped to reinforce the fact that although managers were using these behaviours implicitly, there was a tremendous amount of leeway provided to them by their organization to act in the way that they saw fit. As a result, there were great discrepancies in the desire to intervene or even pay attention to these non-task-related leadership behaviours.

In order to further examine this discrepancy among leaders and to understand the effects of this type of leadership behaviour on subordinates, a survey instrument was developed to empirically test and further confirm the theory and to test its effects on a larger number of individuals. The results of Study 3 confirmed that the newly developed scale had a three factor structure. Additionally, the scale predicted a number of individual and organizational outcomes, including workplace ostracism over and above leader-member exchange and the perceived emotional intelligence of the supervisors. This was further confirmed in a test-retest analysis conducted five weeks after the initial survey.

Study 4 tested for the potential for multiple levels of relational leader interventionary behaviour to affect subordinate outcomes and for the effect of affective states in responding. The results of this study signal that both supervisors and managers play an important role in the prediction of a variety of important individual and organizational outcomes. Finally, Study 5 demonstrated that subordinate RELIB perceptions could be aggregated to the level of the leader. Also, we found that subordinate RELIB perceptions influenced supervisor reports of task and citizenship performance. The results indicate that team-disaggregated reports of RELIB were related to increased citizenship, while individual reports of RELIB were related to task performance.

In all quantitative studies, the psychometric properties of the RELIB scale were supported, as demonstrated by the internal consistency of the items and the stability of the factorial structure. In addition, we also examined the nomological network of this form of leadership behaviour, with several outcomes that emerged from Studies 1 and 2. Consistent with our expectations, we found support for the three dimensional taxonomy

of relational leadership interventionary behaviour. Taken together or separately, the RELIB scale was able to predict a variety of important organizational outcomes including workplace ostracism, organizational citizenship behaviour and safety climate among others. Of particular interest was the fact that each of the three RELIB dimensions had different outcomes, predicted more variance than the aggregated RELIB score and based on a variance inflated factor analysis, we found evidence to suggest that our data was not overly affected by issues of multicollinearity. Finally, we found considerable agreement among subordinates of the same supervisor, suggesting that RELIB is a behaviour that can be accurately perceived and evaluated by subordinates.

Taken as a whole, these results provide a theoretical and empirical rationale for the importance of developing relational leadership interventionary behaviour in the effective management of organizational work teams. The results are consistent with work in third-party interventions by managers (Elangovan, 1995; Giebels & Janssen, 2005), as they reinforce the importance of managers taking the initiative in their emergent role as interpersonal conflict negotiator (Pinkley, Brittain, Neale & Northcraft, 1995) and disturbance handler (Mintzberg, 2002). Highlighting this is a recent study of third-party conflict management styles, where problem-solving behaviour by the leader acted as a buffer against employee stress in instances of relationship conflict (Römer et al., 2012).

7.1 Practical Implications

The RELIB scale has been demonstrated across several samples to be both a reliable and valid measure of leadership interventionary behaviour. As a result, organizations can benefit from integrating the RELIB scale and its various behavioural components into formal leadership training. Study 2 demonstrated that these types of

leadership behaviours are predominately voluntary and at the discretion of the manager. As such, organizations could benefit from integrating programs highlighting the use of these interventionary leadership behaviours into leadership training for all managers. In order to ensure that managers put these newly learned skills to use, the present instrument could be distributed to subordinates by upper management as part of the performance appraisal process. This would ensure that the effective demonstration of these behaviours is both measured and rewarded (Eccles, 1991).

This is also the first study of its kind to explore an intervention strategy, in any form, that serves to reduce perceptions of workplace ostracism. This is particularly important for two reasons. First, there is a growing literature suggesting that workplace ostracism can negatively affect employees over and above other constructs including workplace harassment (Robinson, O'Reilly, & Wang, 2013; O'Reilly, Robinson, Banki & Berdahl, 2014). Second, understanding and implementing policies that can reduce the likelihood of ostracism at work is an important endeavour requiring further study. As such, the development of relational leadership interventionary behaviours at work provides organizations with a first step in addressing feelings of exclusion and isolation in workplaces

Taken as a whole, the five studies highlight the importance of ensuring that managers at all levels of the organization are adequately equipped to diagnose and effectively manage the interpersonal climate of their respective workgroups. To this end, organizational leaders must ensure that their hiring and training practices of new managers integrate this important new leadership behaviour. This is advised as leaders who demonstrate proactivity, awareness and positive intentions with regards to

interpersonal disagreements in the workgroup reduce the likelihood of their subordinates experiencing workplace ostracism, increase job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour, well-being and safety perceptions in addition to task and contextual performance. With such a list of important individual and organisational outcomes associated with this form of leadership behaviour, it is important that upper-level managers set the tone by embracing these behaviours first and letting them trickle down to direct reports as has been shown to be successful in both LMX (Ruiz, Ruiz and Martinez, 2011) and ethical leadership (Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bares & Salvador, 2009) literatures. Further, we encourage all leaders to strive to demonstrate a commitment to developing a harmonious and inclusive work environment.

7.2 Limitations

Several limitations to the current set of studies must be noted. First, much of this research is based on self-reports. This may be of concern because of potential biases associated with this type of responding (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Although we cannot rule out all biases, it should be noted that, in Study 4, we found that the current affective mood, whether it is positive or negative, was not related to the responses of subordinates with regards to their leaders. The scale was able to predict outcomes after five weeks as demonstrated in Study 4. We also have evidence from Study 5 that there is a substantial amount of agreement in the RELIB scale and that it is related to supervisor perceptions of employees' task and citizenship performance.

Although the current studies were conducted with samples from both Canada and the United States, we are not able to generalize these findings across cultures. Future research could explore whether the three emergent relational leadership interventionary

behaviours are consistent across countries or if other behaviours or actions are expected by leaders from different nationalities. One potential intervening cultural variable could be the presence of a high power distance in a host country (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 1991). As the physical and relational separation grows between leader and subordinate, we anticipate the expectation and likelihood of the leader intervening on behalf of a subordinate to diminish, thus influencing the impact of the scale.

One further limitation is the presence of a halo effect with regards to leader RELIB ratings where raters are biased by the target's general character and this influences the subordinate's overall impression of the leader. Although it may be possible, we also point out that RELIB ratings predicted all target constructs over and above emotional intelligence and LMX. Also, more interestingly, reports of supervisor and manager RELIB in Study 4 were not highly correlated with one another suggesting that subordinates can make distinct assessments of their leaders that may not necessarily be affected by an overall character appraisal.

7.3 Future Research and Implications

Future research could examine how the relational leadership interventionary behaviours identified in this study could be used to predict other forms of counterproductive workplace behaviours including bullying (Rayner & Hoel, 1997) and social undermining behaviours (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002). It may also be possible that leaders who display awareness, proactivity and positively intentioned behaviours highlighted in the current study also be associated with a variety of other positive behaviours including adherence to safety procedures and commitment as positive

leadership has been shown to affect a variety of individual and organizational outcomes (e.g., Barling, Loughlin & Kelloway, 2002; Strauss, Griffin & Rafferty, 2009).

The emergence of this construct, in addition to the development of a valid instrument with which to assess the prevalence of this form of leadership behaviour offers a variety of important research implications. First, scholars can further develop this theory to expand into more complex organizational phenomena such as creativity and socialization, both of which are directly influenced by leadership behaviour (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Saks & Gruman, 2011). Second, the newly developed RELIB scale can work as an interesting intervening variable to other leadership behaviour including transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), ethical leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2005) and servant leadership (Greenleaf, Spears & Covey, 2002) as the demonstration of relational interventionary leadership behaviour may serve to amplify or dampen the effects of these other constructs. This is of particular interest because LMX has been used in recent studies as an important intervening variable between other leadership behaviours and outcome variables (e.g., Gooty & Yammarino, 2013; Lee, 2005) and the RELIB scale was found in Study 3 to predict a number of outcomes over and above LMX.

This dissertation also provides initial evidence indicating that subordinates can reach a high level of agreement on their respective supervisor's ability to engage and manage conflict within their workgroup. This suggests that researchers interested in using this scale for team dynamics research would be able to aggregate subordinate scores to the team level. The possibility of grouping responses in relation to this construct creates

an exciting new avenue for future research as there is a growing demand for more team-level research in organizational behaviour (Stewart, 2006).

Future work could also test the hypothesized set of leader interventionary behaviour profiles highlighted in Table 1 through latent profile analysis (e.g., Muthén, 2001). By empirically testing these behaviours using this methodology, we will be able to determine whether groups of individuals can agree on a given number of profiles with regards to the leadership interventionary behaviours of their direct supervisor. This validated set of profiles could then be used to understand the leadership context within the workgroup and predict a variety of potentially important outcomes.

In addition, research can begin to focus on the dispositional characteristics of leaders embodied by the various characteristics of relational leadership interventionary behaviour. From the initial set of interviews with both supervisors and managers, a number of potential leadership traits began to emerge that may affect the tendency to intervene. First, the level of empathy exhibited by leaders seemed to have played a significant role in whether the leader acted to reduce interpersonal disagreements within the workgroup. Consistent with work on emotional leadership (Humphrey, 2002), leaders who were found to be emotionally attached to their team members were more likely to involve themselves in the team and demonstrate empathic concern towards members of their team.

Some other potential leader dispositional characteristics include the trichotomy of needs proposed by McClelland (1965), particularly the need for power and affiliation. Those with a high need for power are hypothesized to rate highly on the level of

proactivity they display due to their inherent desire to control their surroundings, while those with a high need for affiliation are expected to exhibit high levels of positively intentioned behaviour. Future research can examine these possible relationships with a variety of other needs including the need for influence (House, 1977) and need for control (Aryee, Xiong, Sun, & Debrah, 2007). Further work could also examine links with leadership styles, defined by Fielder (1967) as "an underlying need structure of the individual which motivates his (her) behaviour in various leadership situations" (p. 23). Of particular interest would be the contrast between democratic and authoritarian leaders and how these tendencies affect the way in which leaders approach interpersonal conflict.

Future studies could examine whether it is possible to train these relational leadership interventionary behaviours. Research from the field of transformational (Bass, 1990) and safety-specific transformational leadership (Mullen & Kelloway, 2009) has shown that leader behaviours can be trained under the right circumstances. We assert that because the taxonomy of relational leadership interventionary behaviour is specific, concrete and behaviour based, these attempts are more likely to succeed (Frese, Beimel, & Schonborn, 2003; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996).

A further avenue for research in this area could explore the relationships between subordinate and leader perceptions of the three RELIB dimensions. In a recent analysis, with almost 11,000 leader-member dyads, the overall level of agreement in leader-member exchange between the two groups was a correlation of .37 (Sin, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2009). We believe that the level of agreement between these two sources may be equally low or lower as leaders may see themselves as being more supportive than their subordinates perceive. This level of agreement may be of importance, particularly in

cases where leaders may be asked to use these skills, and for training purposes where leaders do not feel that they need help to develop their abilities.

7.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, this research builds on a number of leadership behaviour theories to put forward the notion of relational leadership interventionary behaviour as a primary means of reducing the prevalence of workplace ostracism and increasing inclusiveness. Through the development of a valid 9-item RELIB scale, we were able to confirm the benefits of leaders who remain proactive, aware and strongly intentioned with regards to the development of a positive interpersonal climate in their workgroup. The hope with this dissertation is that more research and practitioner efforts are put into the study of the role that leaders can play in the prevention or promotion of interpersonal conflict in the workplace, particularly in cases of workplace ostracism. In sum, the objective is to further empirical examinations into leadership behaviours beyond task-specific outcomes and encourage leaders to place more focus on developing an open and inclusive work group.

TABLES

Table 1

Leader Intervention Behaviour Profiles

	Active	**Inactive/Passive**
Aware- Intention (+)	Intervener	Hesitant/Powerless
Aware- Intention (-)	Initiator/Overtly Engaged	Complicit
Unaware- Intention (+)	Inclusionary	Oblivious/Uninterested
Unaware- Intention (-)	Exclusionary	

Table 2

Breakdown of Leader Profile by Respondent

Pseudonym	Supervisor Profile	Manager Profile
Beth	Initiator	Initiator
Andy	Initiator	Complicit
Katherine	Oblivious/Uninterested	Intervener
Joan	Initiator	Oblivious/Uninterested
Paul	Initiator	Intervener
Paige	Initiator	Oblivious/Uninterested
Blake	Inclusionary	Oblivious/Uninterested
Gail	Oblivious/Uninterested	-
Don	Hesitant/Powerless	Oblivious/Uninterested
Maya	Initiator	Complicit
Rita	Initiator	Oblivious/Uninterested
Penny	Intervener	Intervener
Jen	Exclusionary	Oblivious/Uninterested
Camilla	Exclusionary	Oblivious/Uninterested
Melanie	Hesitant-Powerless	-
Max	Oblivious/Uninterested	Oblivious/Uninterested
Bob	Exclusionary	Exclusionary
Diane	Initiator	Hesitant/Powerless
Nick	Initiator	-
Natalie	Complicit	Hesitant/Powerless
Alyssa	Initiator	Hesitant-Powerless
Sanford	Oblivious/Uninterested	Hesitant-Powerless
Mike	Initiator	-
Matt	Exclusionary	Exclusionary
Sam	Inclusionary	Intervener
Amanda	Initiator	Oblivious/Uninterested
Parker	Initiator	Oblivious/Uninterested
Sarah	Initiator	Hesitant/Powerless
Allison	Oblivious/Uninterested	Oblivious/Uninterested
Jessica	Hesitant/Powerless	Oblivious/Uninterested

Table 3

Classification of Cases by Perceived Reason for Ostracism

Silencing/ Discrediting	Language Barrier	Outsider	Threat to group/leader	Observed
Beth[2]	Paul[1]	Camilla	Nick	Katherine
Jessica	Blake	Beth[2]	Paul[1]	Rita
Maya	Sanford	Paige	Penny	Penny
Sarah	Don	Katherine	Andy	Max
	Sam	Mike	Jen	Don
		Matt	Melanie	Joan
		Amanda	Bob	Paige
		Diane	Parker	Sarah
		Gail	Alyssa	Amanda
		Natalie	Allison	Matt
		Rita[1]	Joan	Mike
				Alyssa
				Natalie

1-2 As several individuals highlighted how they were ostracized by separate groups during the course of their interviews, they were each placed in two separate categories.

Table 4

Overall Breakdown of Managers and Supervisor by Leader Profile Based on Interviews

Supervisor	Leader Profile	Manager
1 (3%)	Intervener	4 (15%)
14 (47%)	Initiator	1 (4%)
2 (7%)	Inclusionary	0(0%)
4 (13%)	Exclusionary	2 (8%)
3 (10%)	Hesitant/Powerless	5 (19%)
1 (3%)	Complicit	2 (8 %)
5 (17%)	Oblivious/Uninterested	12 (46 %)
30	Total	26

Table 5

Summary of Ostracism Classifications and Final Analysis

	Silence/ Discrediting	Language Barrier	Outsider	Threat	Observed
Supervisor and Manager Profile (Q1)	-Supervisor: Aware	-Supervisor: Passive -Manager: Positively Intentioned	-Supervisor: Negatively Intentioned -Manager: Passive	-Supervisor: Initiator -Manager: Oblivious/ Uninterested	-Manager: Passive
Ostracism Behaviours (Q2)	-Social Ostracism -Physical Ostracism	-Language Exclusion -Physical Ostracism	-Social Ostracism -Physical Ostracism	-Information Exclusion -Social Ostracism -Physical Ostracism	*
Coping Methods (Q2)	-Social-support (Coworkers) -Crying -Confronting	-Pro-social followed by anti-social	-Anti-social -Social Support-(Coworkers) -Confronting	-Anti-social -Social Support (Friends & Family) -Crying -Confronting	-Social Support-(Coworkers)
Personal Cost (Q3)	-Negative mood	*	-Stress -Negative mood -Health -Depressed-Drained	-Stress -Negative mood -Health -Depressed-Drained -Helpless	-Stress
Organizational Cost (Q3)	-Turnover Intentions	-Commitment -Job Satisfaction	-Turnover Intentions -Job Satisfaction -Commitment	-Commitment -Job Satisfaction	*

* Denotes no trend found

Table 6

Pseudonyms, Ages and Positions of All Interviewed Managers in Study 2

Pseudonym	Age	Position
Bonnie	24	Outbound Call Centre Manager
Carl	64	Elementary School Principal
Bernard	61	Civil Service Manager
Catherine	35	Education Program Coordinator
Ivan	48	Hospital Department Director
Jack	28	Movie Theatre Manager
Robert	46	Inbound Call Centre Manager
Steven	37	Enterprise Software Development Manager
Anne	51	Nurse Manager
Carla	41	Restaurant Night Manager

Table 7

Summary of Codes from Manager Study

Higher-order Category	Definition	First-order Category
• Preventative Actions-Covert	Steps that are taken by managers to reduce the occurrence of interpersonal disturbances& that are not known to the workgroup.	-Personal monitoring
• Preventative Actions-Overt	Strategies that managers used with their workgroup to reduce the occurrence of interpersonal disturbances	-Engender mission/values -Lead by example -Clarify roles and responsibilities -Get to know employees
• Threshold to intervene	The threshold where managers decide that they must intervene in a given interpersonal disturbance	-Negative effect on work environment -Negative effect on performance
• Primary intervention method	The preferred means by which managers choose to intervene.	-Individual meetings -Group meetings
• Intervention Resources	Resources that managers rely on during interventions	-Seeking support from colleagues -Reliance on personal experience -Employee Assistance Program (EAP)

Table 8

Confirmatory Factor Analyses For Proposed and Alternative Factor Structures

Proposed and alternative factor structures	$\chi 2$	df	$\chi 2$/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Three-Factor Model	44.20	24	1.84	.99	.98	.05	.03
Two-Factor Model (Awareness and Intentionality), Proactivity	49.60	26	1.91	.97	.96	.06	.04
Two-Factor Model (Proactivity and Intentionality), Awareness	51.60	26	1.98	.95	.95	.07	.04
Two-Factor Model (Proactivity and Awareness), Intentionality	59.40	26	2.28	.74	.68	.14	.09
One-Factor Model	65.12	27	2.41	.88	.86	.11	.08

N = 235, CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics, Zero Order Correlations and Cronbach's Alphas for Time 1 Variables

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Age	30.89	10.10	-																			
2. Gender	1.44	0.50	.11*	-																		
3. Tenure	1.02	0.15	.03	.58**	-						-											
4. Proactivity	4.72	1.36	.07	-.10*	-.01	**.82**																
5. Awareness	4.82	1.23	.05	-.08	.04	.77**	**.85**															
6. Intentions	5.07	1.37	.10*	-.03	.04	.79**	.80**	**.91**														
7. RELIB-Total	4.87	1.22	.08	-.08	.02	.92**	.92**	.94**	**.94**													
8. Short-term Planning	3.72	0.80	.01	-.01	.01	.69**	.65**	.68**	.73**	**.84**												
9. MEE	3.50	0.86	.02	-.04	.01	.64**	.56**	.57**	.64**	.70**	**.83**											
10. Computer Use	59.41	31.98	.02	-.02	.06	-.05	-.03	.02	-.02	-.06	-.01	**.87**										
11. LMX	3.60	0.86	.03	-.02	.06	.68**	.73**	.80**	.80**	.66**	.56**	-.01	**.91**									
12. ROE	5.24	0.99	-.02	.12**	.11	.22**	.26**	.21**	.25**	.17**	.14**	-.05	.22**	**.83**								
13. UOE	5.52	0.92	.13**	.09	.07	.27**	.33**	.31**	.33**	.28**	.24**	-.05	.31	.48**	**.79**							
14. OEA	5.51	0.88	.15**	.14**	.10*	.16**	.24**	.19**	.21**	.19**	.11*	-.03	.19**	.50**	.59**	**.88**						
15. Well-being	3.12	0.48	.01	.14**	.15**	.27**	.31**	.33**	.33**	.25**	.20**	-.01	.36**	.51**	.46**	.46**	**.89**					
16. Job Satisfaction	5.34	1.54	.05	.09*	.09	.48**	.48**	.53**	.54**	.44**	.45**	-.03	.57**	.35**	.36**	.28**	.49**	**.94**				
17. Ostracism	1.60	0.84	-.08	-.07	-.05	-.25**	-.25**	-.30**	-.29**	-.25**	-.21**	.01	-.26**	-.27	-31	-.33**	-.43**	-.39**	**.92**			
18. OCB-O	5.58	0.81	.13**	.27**	.11*	.28**	.34**	.35**	.35**	.34**	.20**	-.08	.31**	.32**	.42**	.40**	.33**	.38**	-.39**	**.91**		
19. OCB-I	5.48	0.96	.19**	.16**	.09	.25**	.29**	.33**	.32**	.29**	.20**	-.08	.32*	.24**	.41**	.37**	.23**	.41**	-.28**	.48**	**.71**	
20. Safety Climate	5.97	1.07	.07	.01	.12*	.31**	.36**	.38**	.38**	.43**	.32**	-.07	.33**	.26**	.35**	.30**	.18**	.33**	-.30**	.39**	.34**	**.93**

Note. N = 470; RELIBS- Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour, MEE- Monitoring the External Environment, LMX- Leader-Member Exchange, ROE- Regulation of Emotions, UOE- Use of Emotions, OEA- Other's Emotional Appraisals, OCB-O: Organiational Citizenship Behaviour-Organization, Citizenship Behaviour- Individual

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 10

Subordinate Attitudes Regressed onto Control, LMX and Interventionary Leadership Behaviours

Model	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor
Outcome	Ostracism			Safety Climate			Well-being		
Predictor and Statistics	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	-.08	-.09	-.10	-.06	-.04	-.03	.11*	.11*	.12*
Tenure	.01	.01	.01	.12	.12	.12	.07	.06	.07
LMX	-.26**	-.04	-.07	.32**	.06	.09	.36**	.25**	.26**
Proactivity-RELIB		-.03			-.06			.01	
Awareness-RELIB		-.03			.17†			.08	
Intentionality-RELIB		-.22*			.24**			.07	
Overall-RELIB			-.24**			.30**			.13*
R^2	.07**	.10**	.09**	.12**	.17**	.16**	.16**	.16**	16**
Adjusted R^2	.06	.09	.08	.11	.15	.14	15	.15	.16
Δ R^2		.03**	.02**		.05**	.03**		.01	.01*

NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour, LMX = Leader-member exchange. ΔR2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with a model consisting of control variables and LMX. †p < .10. *p < .05. **p< .01.

Subordinate Attitudes Regressed onto Control, LMX and Interventionary Leadership Behaviours

Model	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor
Outcome	Job Satisfaction			OCB-I			OCB-O		
Predictor and Statistics	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	11*	.12**	13**	.19**	.20**	.20**	.33**	.36**	.36**
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.04	-.05	-.04	-.11*	-.12*	-.11*
LMX	.57**	.37**	.37**	.32**	.13†	.16*	.32**	.01	.05
Proactivity-RELIB		.12†			-.04			-.03	
Awareness-RELIB		.03			.07			.22**	
Intentionality-RELIB		.13†			.22**			.21*	
Overall-RELIB			.25**			.21**			.34**
R^2	.34**	.36**	.36**	.13**	.15**	.14**	.17**	23**	.22**
Adjusted R^2	.33	.35	.35	.12	.14	.14	.17	22	.21
Δ R^2		.02**	.02**		.02**	.02**		.05**	.04**

NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour, LMX = Leader-member exchange. ΔR2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with a model consisting of control variables and LMX. †p < .10. *p < .05. **p< .01.

Table 11

Subordinate Attitudes Regressed onto Control, EI and Interventionary Leadership Behaviours

Model	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor
Outcome	Ostracism			Safety Climate			Well-being		
Predictor and Statistics	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	-.01	-.04	-.05	-.15*	-.11	-.09	.02	.04	.05
Tenure	-.01	.01	.01	.16*	.12†	.12†	.08	.06	.06
ROE	-.10†	-.08	-.07	.07	.05	.04	.32**	.30**	.30**
UOE	-.15**	-.09	-.09†	.21**	.15†	.15†	.20**	.14**	.15**
OEA	-.15**	.15**	-.15*	.09	.10	.11	.20**	.21**	.20**
Proactivity-RELIB		-.02			-.08			.01	
Awareness-RELIB		.05			.06			-.02	
Intentionality-RELIB		-.24**			.31**			.20**	
Overall-RELIB			-.20**			.28**			.17**
R^2	.14**	.18**	.18**	.17**	.25**	.26**	.35**	.38**	.38**
Adjusted R^2	.13**	.17**	.16**	.15**	.23**	.24**	.34**	.37**	.37**
ΔR^2		.04**	.03**		.08	.09**		.03**	.03**

NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour, ROE = Regulation of emotion, UOE = Use of Emotion, OEA = Others' emotional appraisal. ΔR2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with a model consisting of control variables and components of Emotional Intelligence. †p < .10. *p < .05. **p< .01.

Subordinate Attitudes Regressed onto Control, EI and Interventionary Leadership Behaviours

Model	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor
Outcome	Job Satisfaction			OCB-I			OCB-O		
Predictor and Statistics	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	.02	.09†	.10*	.12*	.14**	.15**	.26**	.30**	.30**
Tenure	.03	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.03	-.03	-.09†	-.12*	-.11*
ROE	.21**	.17**	.16**	-.01	-.02	-.03	.11*	.08†	.08†
UOE	.24**	.11*	.12*	.27**	.21**	.21**	.25**	.17**	.18**
OEA	.05	.05	.05	.12*	.12*	.13**	.16**	.15**	.16**
Proactivity-RELIB		.13*			-.05			-.03	
Awareness-RELIB		.04			.02			.12†	
Intentionality-RELIB		.34**			.27**			.20**	
Overall-RELIB			.47**			.22**			.26**
R^2	.17**	.37**	.36**	.22**	.28**	.27**	.27**	.33**	.33**
Adjusted R^2	.16**	.36**	.35**	.21**	.26**	.26**	.26**	.32**	.32**
ΔR^2		.20**	.19**		.05**	.05**		.06**	.06**

NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour, ROE = Regulation of emotion, UOE = Use of Emotion, OEA = Others' emotional appraisal. ΔR2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with a model consisting of control variables and components of Emotional Intelligence. †p < .10. *p < .05. **p< .01.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics, Zero Order Correlations and Cronbach's Alphas for Time 1 RELIBS and Time 2 Variables

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Gender	.45	0.50	-																
2. Age	32.01	10.60	.11*	-															
3. Tenure	1.02	0.15	.03	.58**	-														
4. Proactivity	4.71	1.33	.07	-.10*	-.01	**.82**													
5. Awareness	4.81	1.21	.05	-.08	.04	.77**	**.85**												
6. Intentionality	5.06	1.39	.10*	-.04	.04	.79**	.80**	**.91**											
7. RELIBS- Total	4.86	1.21	.08	-.08	.02	.92**	.92**	.94**	**.94**										
8. Proactivity T2	4.87	1.37	.06	-.03	.06	.72**	.61**	.68**	.73**	**.89**									
9. Awareness T2	4.87	1.21	.05	.01	.07	.67**	.66**	.67**	.72**	.86**	**.85**								
10. Intentionality T2	5.02	1.43	.08	-.03	.09	.68**	.63**	.74**	.74**	.86**	.83**	**.90**							
11. RELIBS T2- Total	4.92	1.27	.07	-.02	.08	.73**	.67**	.74**	.77**	.96**	.94**	.95**	**.95**						
12. Well-being T2	3.07	0.42	.01	.15**	.11*	.22**	.21**	.22**	.24**	.38**	.38**	.32**	.38**	**.82**					
13. Job Sat T2	5.18	1.58	.02	.04	.10	.44**	.39**	.46**	.47**	.57**	.55**	.61**	.61**	.52**	**.95**				
14. Ostracism T2	1.52	0.90	-.01	-.13*	-.12*	-.18**	-.18**	-.26**	-.23**	-.34**	-.36**	-.30**	-.35**	-.49**	-.36**	**.93**			
15. OCB-O T2	5.67	0.83	.12*	.30**	.19**	.28**	.32**	.30**	.32**	.31**	.36**	.28**	.33**	.44**	.34**	-.42**	**.87**		
16. OCB-I T2	5.36	0.93	.19**	.17**	.09	.21**	.24**	.26**	.26**	.32**	.36**	.30**	.34**	.29**	.30**	-.23**	.50**	**.78**	
17. Safety Climate T2	5.93	0.99	.18*	.12	.21**	.29**	.30**	.40**	.36**	.39**	.34**	.46**	.42**	.22**	.41**	-.29	.39**	.30**	**.84**

Note. N = 334. Job Sat: Job Satisfaction, OCB-I: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour-Individual, OCB-O: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour-Organization

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 13

Subordinate Time 2 Attitudes Regressed onto Time 1 Control and Interventionary Leadership Behaviours

Model	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor
Outcome	Ostracism			Safety Climate			Well-being		
Predictor and Statisti	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	.01	.03	.02	.16*	.13	.14*	.01	-.01	-.01
Tenure	-.12*	-.10	-.10*	.19*	.15*	.16*	.10*	.09	.09
Intentionality-RELIB		-.33**			.55**			.09	
Proactivity-RELIB		.02			.13			.15*	
Awareness-RELIB		.07			.18†			.05	
Overall-RELIB			-.24**			.34**			.25**
R^2	.02**	.08**	.06**	.07**	.21**	.17**	.01	.06**	.06**
Adjusted R^2	.01	.07	.05	.06	.19	16	.01	.05	.05
Δ R^2		.06**	.04**		.14**	.10**		.05**	.05**

NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour. ΔR2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with a model consisting of control variables. †p < .10. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Subordinate Time 2 Attitudes Regressed onto Time 1 Control and Interventionary Leadership Behaviours

Model	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor	Control Variables and LMX	Separate RELIB Factors	General RELIB Factor
Outcome	Job Satisfaction			OCB-I			OCB-O		
Predictor and Statisti	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	.01	-.03	-.03	.19**	.16**	.16**	.11*	.08	.09
Tenure	.09	.08	.07	.07	.09	.07	.18**	.16**	.16**
Intentionality-RELIB		.28**			.22*			.07	
Proactivity-RELIB		.23**			.03			.05	
Awareness-RELIB		.02			.09			.27*	
Overall-RELIB			.46**			.27**			.34**
R^2	.01**	.23**	.22**	.04**	.10**	.10**	.05**	.14**	.14**
Adjusted R^2	.00	.22	.22	.04	.09	.09	.04	.13	.13
Δ R^2		.22**	.21**		.06**	.06**		.09**	.09**

NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour. ΔR2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with a model consisting of control variables. †p < .10. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics, Zero Order Correlations and Alphas for Study 4 Variables

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Age	24.30	7.70	-																			
2. Gender	.55	.50	.01	-																		
3. Workgroup Members	53.2	69.60	-.13	-.03	-																	
4. Tenure	2.70	1.50	.12	.02	.03	-																
5. Supervisor-Proactivity	4.48	1.50	-.13	-.07	.04	-.01	**.85**															
6. Supervisor- Awareness	4.80	1.44	-.13	-.08	.02	-.03	.82**	**.86**														
7. Supervisor- Intentions	4.80	1.55	-.12	-.10	.07	-.05	.85**	.81**	**.90**													
8. Supervisor- RELIB Total	4.86	1.40	-.13	-.09	.05	-.04	.95**	.93**	.95**	**.94**												
9. Manager-Proactivity	4.72	1.50	-.19*	.08	.08	-.04	.36**	.22*	.30**	.31**	**.84**											
10. Manager-Awareness	4.60	1.46	-.13	.14	.10	-.04	.42**	.19*	.34**	.34**	.79**	**.86**										
11. Manager-Intentions	4.92	1.53	-.09	.05	.08	-.13	.35**	.20*	.29**	.30**	.85**	.79**	**.93**									
12. Manager-RELIBS Total	4.75	1.40	-.14	.09	.09	-.08	.40**	.21*	.33**	.34**	.94**	.91**	.94**	**.95**								
13. Ostracism	1.59	1.00	-.06	-.11	.06	-.09	-.14*	-.11	-.16*	-.14*	-.24**	-.11	-.20*	-.20*	**.95**							
14. Safety Climate	5.57	1.36	-.21*	-.05	.12	.03	.48**	.37**	.47**	.46**	.53**	.33**	.44**	.46**	-.32**	**.94**						
15. Job Satisfaction	5.31	1.43	.01	.01	.07	-.01	.45**	.41**	.52**	.49**	.40**	.37**	.36**	.40**	-.31**	.45**	**.91**					
16. OCB-I	5.48	.90	.06	.22**	.12	.15*	.26**	.26**	.27**	.28**	.32**	.27**	.27**	.31**	-.33**	.50**	.37**	**.84**				
17. OCB-O	5.34	.81	.12	.08	-.02	.10	.19**	.21**	.25**	.23**	.32**	.26**	.31**	.32**	-.42**	.48**	.44**	.58**	**.70**			
18. Well-being	4.23	.43	.07	.23**	-.07	-.08	.06	.07	.09	.08	.23*	.16	.19*	.21*	-.24**	.24*	.26**	.40**	.39**	**.81**		
19. Negative Affect	3.05	0.89	.23**	.15	.06	.14	.13	.14	.08	.12	.06	.05	.07	.06	.26**	.31**	-.22**	-.13	.16*	-.24**	**.90**	
20. Positive Affect	3.64	0.77	-.03	.18**	.07	.17	.05	.06	.02	.05	.04	.04	.03	.04	-.24**	.16*	.29**	.07	.09	.45**	-.46**	**.80**

Note. N = 219 with the exception of safety climate, N = 97. OCB-I- Organizational Citizenship Behaviour-Individual, OCB-O-Organizational Citizenship Behaviour-Organization.

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 15

Confirmatory Factor Analyses For Proposed and Alternative Factor Structures for Study 4

Proposed and alternative factor structures	χ2	df	χ2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Supervisors							
Three-Factor Model	78.13	24	3.26	.96	.94	.08	.03
Two-Factor Model (Awareness and Intentionality), Proactivity	131.08	26	5.04	.93	.91	.14	.05
Two-Factor Model (Proactivity and Intentionality), Awareness	128.29	26	4.93	.93	.91	.13	.04
Two-Factor Model (Proactivity and Awareness), Intentionality	126.14	26	4.85	.94	.91	.13	.04
One-Factor Model	132.10	27	4.89	.93	.91	.13	.04
Managers							
Three-Factor Model	65.28	24	2.72	.95	.94	.08	.04
Two-Factor Model (Awareness and Intentionality), Proactivity	74.30	26	2.86	.94	.93	.13	.05
Two-Factor Model (Proactivity and Intentionality), Awareness	72.55	26	2.79	.94	.92	.13	.05
Two-Factor Model (Proactivity and Awareness), Intentionality	86.50	26	3.32	.93	.91	.15	.06
One-Factor Model	88.64	27	3.29	.93	.91	.14	.04

N = 219 (Supervisors), *N* = 158 (Managers), CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

Table 16

The Relationship Between Supervisory RELIB and Individual-level Outcomes

Variable	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB
Outcome	Ostracism		Job Satisfaction		OCB-O		OCB-I		Safety Climate		Well-being	
Predictor and Statistics	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	-.04	.08	.01	.08	.10	.13*	.04	.08	-.25*	-.16†	.06	.08
Gender	-.13	-.16	.01	.05	.07	.10	.21**	.25**	-.07	-.01	.22**	.23**
Tenure	.04	.04	.07	.06	-.02	-.03	.13*	.12†	.08	.06	-.06	-.06
Workgroup Members	-.10	-.11	-.02	-.01	.08	.09	.14*	.14*	.11	.11	-.09	-.09
Supervisor RELIB		-.23*		.50**		.26**		.31**		.42**		.11†
R^2	.03**	.08**	.01**	.25**	.03**	.09**	.09**	.18**	.09**	.26**	.06**	.08**
Adjusted R^2	-.01	.03	-.01	.23	.01	.07	.07	.16	.05	.22	.04	.05
ΔR^2		.04**		.23**		.06**		.09**		.17**		.01*

NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behavior. ΔR^2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with control variables.
†p < .10. *p < .05. **p< .01.

Table 17

The Relationship Between Manager RELIB and Individual-level Outcomes

Variable	Control Variables	Manager RELIB	Control Variables	Manager RELIB	Control Variables	Manager RELIB	Control Variables	Manager RELIB	Control Variables	Manager RELIB	Control Variables	Manager RELIB
Outcome	Ostracism		Job Satisfaction		OCB-O		OCB-I		Safety Climate		Well-being	
Predictor and Statistics	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	-.04	-.07	-.24*	-.19*	-.01	.04	.10	.10	-.07	-.06	.03	.05
Gender	-.13	-.11	.05	.02	.01	.06	.21*	.21*	.01	.04	.29**	.27**
Tenure	.04	.05	.07	.04	-.02	-.04	.16	.17†	.09	.10	-.10	-.11
Workgroup Members	-.10	-.12	-.15	-.11	.04	.07		.06	.10	.04	-.18*	-.17*
Manager RELIB		-.22*		.36**		.33**		.30**		.45**		.18*
R^2	.03**	.07**	.09**	.21**	.01**	.11**	.07**	.16**	.03**	.23**	.12**	.16**
Adjusted R^2	.00	.03	.05	.17	.00	.07	.04	.12	.00	.16	.09	.12
Δ R^2		.03*		.12**		.07**		.08		.16**		.03**

NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behavior. ΔR^2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with control variables.
†p < .10. *p < .05. **p< .01.

Table 18

Subordinate Attitudes Regressed onto Control Variables and Supervisor RELIB Individual Scores

Variable	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB	Control Variables	Supervisor RELIB
Outcome	Ostracism		Job Satisfaction		OCB-O		OCB-I		Safety Climate		Well-being	
Predictor and Statistics	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	-.04	-.08	-.24**	-.15†	-.01	.05	.10	.16†	-.07	-.04	.03	.04
Gender	-.13	-.16†	.05	.13	.10	.13	.21*	.25**	.01	.11	.29**	.30**
Tenure	.04	.06	.07	.04	-.02	-.03	.16†	.16†	.09	.03	-.10	-.10
Workgroup Members	-.10	-.13	-.15	-.11	.04	.06	.03	.05	.01	.11	-.18*	-.19*
Supervisor- Proactivity		.13		.14		-.01		.03		.02		.19†
Supervisor-Awareness		.02		.20		.07		.04		-.18		.04
Supervisor- Intentionality		-.37*		.50**		.23		.22*		.65*		.08
R^2	.03**	.10**	.08**	.30**	.01**	.09**	.07**	.14**	.03**	.28**	.12**	.13**
Adjusted R^2	-.01	.03	.05	.26	-.03	.03	.04	.08	-.04	.19	.08	.09
ΔR^2		.04		.20**		.06**		.04**		.23**		.01*

NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behavior. ΔR^2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with control variables.
†p < .10. *p < .05. **p< .01.

Table 19

Subordinate Attitudes Regressed onto Control Variables and Manager RELIB Individual Scores

Variable	Control Variables	Manager RELIB	Control Variables	Manager RELIB	Control Variables	Manager RELIB	Control Variables	Manager RELIB	Control Variables	Manager RELIB	Control Variables	Manager RELIB
Outcome	Ostracism		Job Satisfaction		OCB-O		OCB-I		Safety Climate		Well-being	
Predictor and Statistics	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	-.04	-.04	-.24*	-.24*	-.01	.02	.10	.14	-.07	-.04	.03	.04
Gender	-.13	-.10	.05	.05	.10	.06	.21*	.18†	.01	-.02	.29**	.26**
Tenure	.04	.06	.07	.07	-.02	-.04	.16†	.14	.09	.10	-.10	-.12
Workgroup Members	-.10	-.12	-.15	-.15	.04	.08	.03	.05	.01	-.03	-.18*	-.17†
Manager-Proactivity		-.29†		.28†		.16		.22		1.03**		.21
Manager- Awareness		.23		.09		-.02		.10		.47*		-.04
Manager- Intentionality		-.16		.01		.21		.01		-.11		.02
R^2	.03**	.11**	.08**	.21**	.01**	.12**	.07**	.16**	.03**	.36**	.12**	.16**
Adjusted R^2	-.01	.05	.05	.16	-.03	.06	.04	.10	-.04	.28	.09	.11
ΔR^2		.06**		.11**		.09**		.06**		.29**		.02**

NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behavior. ΔR^2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with control variables.
†p < .10. *p < .05. **p< .01.

Table 20

Indirect Effects of Manager RELIB on Organiational Outcomes Through the Mediator of Supervisor RELIB

	Point Estimate	Standard Error	Bias-Corrected Bootstrap 95% Lower-level confidence interval	Bias-Corrected Bootstrap 95% Upper-level confidence interval
		Workplace Ostracism		
Supervisor RELIB	-.0359	.0265	-.1177	-.0018
		Job Satisfaction		
Supervisor RELIB	.1151	.0579	.0276	.2569
		OCB-I		
Supervisor RELIB	.0236	.0225	-.0126	.0766
		OCB-O		
Supervisor RELIB	.0295	.0226	.0073	.0879
		Safety Climate		
Supervisor RELIB	.1120	.0595	.0236	.2601
		Well-being		
Supervisor RELIB	-.0054	.0142	-.0407	.0204

Note: N = 216, Based on 10,000 bootstrap samples

Table 21

Descriptive Statistics, Zero Order Correlations and Cronbach's Alphas for Study 5 Variables

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Age	37.16	10.05	-												
2. Gender	.22	0.42	.25	-											
3. Tenure	89.80	105.03	.72**	.21	-										
4. Task Performance	4.00	.65	-.01	.34*	.03	**.87**									
5. Citizenship Performance	3.80	.67	-.04	.07	-.01	.59**	**.74**								
6. Proactivity RELIB	5.73	1.10	.05	-.04	-.01	.31*	.22	**.86**							
7. Awareness RELIB	5.57	1.18	.10	-.14	.07	.15	.16	.80**	**.89**						
8. Intentions RELIB	6.10	1.03	.03	-.02	.05	.35*	.23	.85**	.77**	**.91**					
9. RELIB	5.80	1.03	.07	-.07	.04	.30*	.21	.95**	.92**	.93**	**.95**				
10. Team Proactivity RELIB	5.89	.20	.24	.21	.20	.09	.14	.19	.21	.39**	.28	-			
11. Team Awareness RELIB	5.80	.27	.01	.05	.06	.16	.31*	.14	.26	.30*	.25	.81**	-		
12. Team Intentions RELIB	6.25	.33	.23	.25	.23	.04	.06	.17	.19	.39**	.26	.98**	.76**	-	
13 Team RELIB	5.94	.23	.12	.12	.09	.17	.21	.19	.26	.37**	.29*	.96**	.93**	.91**	-

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 22

Subordinate Performance Regressed onto Team-aggregated RELIB

Model	Control Variables	Separate RELIB Factors	Overall RELIB	Control Variables	Separate RELIB Factors	Overall RELIB
Outcome	Task Performance			OCB		
Predictor and Statistics	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	.30	.29	.31	.09	-.03	
Tenure	-.05	.08	-.04	-.03	-.13	
Proactivity-RELIB		.85			.56	
Awareness-RELIB		.09			.89*	
Intentionality-RELIB		.85			1.33	
			.16			.21
R^2	.09**	.03**	.11**	.05**	.24**	.06**
Adjusted R^2	.03	.01	.03	.05	.11	.06
ΔR^2		-.02	.00		.06*	.01

NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour. ΔR^2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with model consisting of control variables.
†p < .10. *p < .05. **p< .01.

Table 23

Subordinate Performance Regressed onto Subordinate RELIB

Model	Control Variables	Separate RELIB Factors	Overall RELIB	Control Variables	Separate RELIB Factors	Overall RELIB
Outcome	Task Performance			OCB		
Predictor and Statistics	β	β	β	β	β	β
Gender	.30	.26	.32†	.09	.08	.11
Tenure	-.05	-.07	-.10	-.03	-.06	-.07
Proactivity-RELIB		.32			.14	
Awareness-RELIB		.46			-.12	
Intentionality-RELIB		.55†			.22	
			.33*			.23
R^2	.09**	.29**	.19	.05**	.06**	.06**
Adjusted R^2	.03	.18	.12	.05	.06	.06
ΔR^2		.15**	.09**		.01	.01

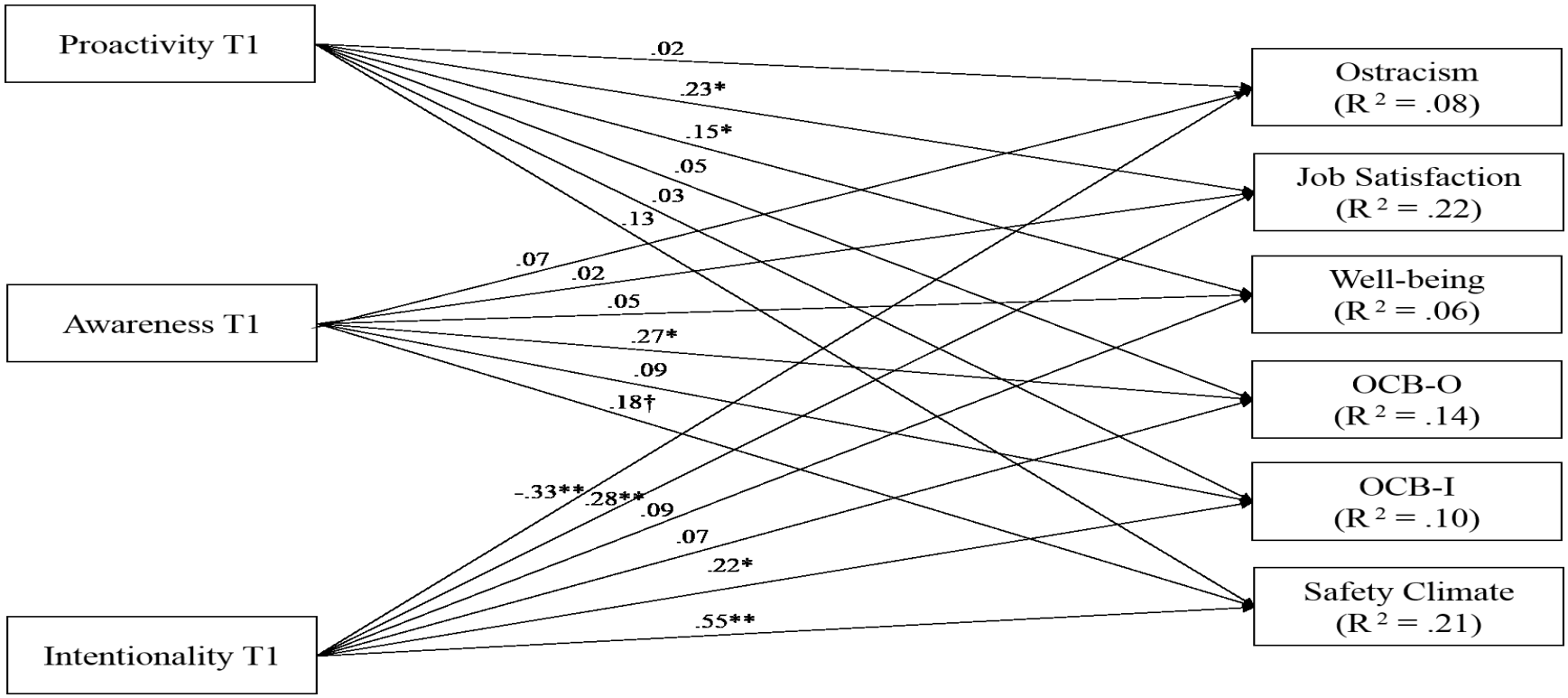
NOTE: RELIB = Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour. ΔR^2 statistics represent models with RELIB scores compared with model consisting of control variables.

†p < .10. *p < .05. **p< .01.

FIGURES

Figure 1

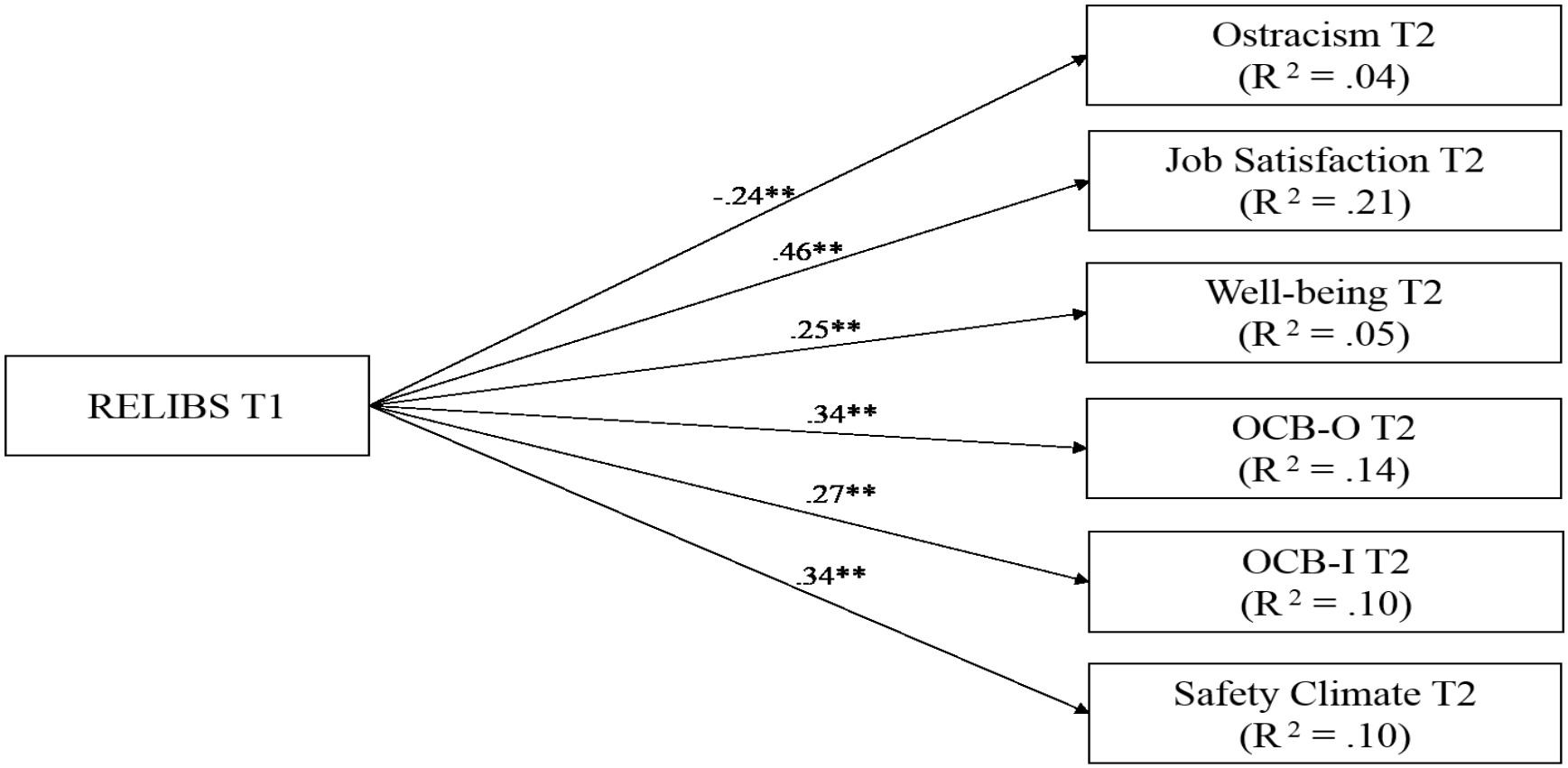
Path Analysis for Individual Time 1 RELIB Scores and Time 2 Outcome Variables



Note. OCB-I: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour-Individual, OCB-O: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour-Organization

Figure 2

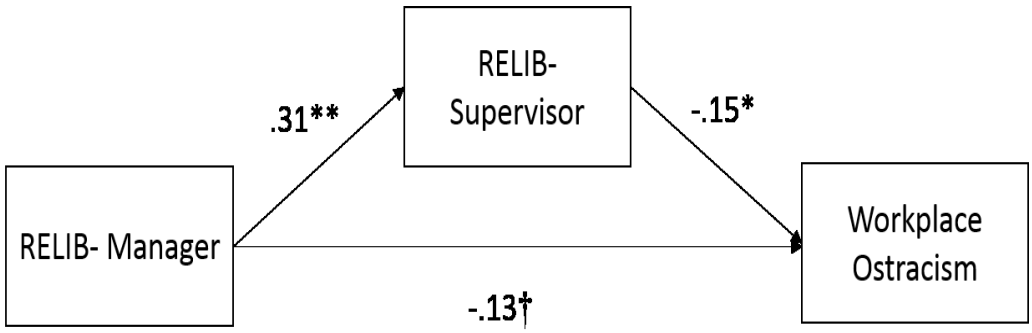
Path Analysis for Time 1 Aggregated RELIB Score and Time 2 Outcome Variables



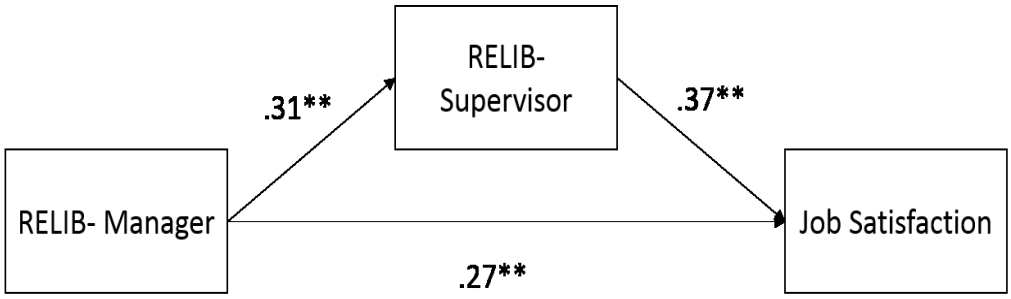
Note. OCB-I: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour-Individual, OCB-O: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour-Organization

Figure 3

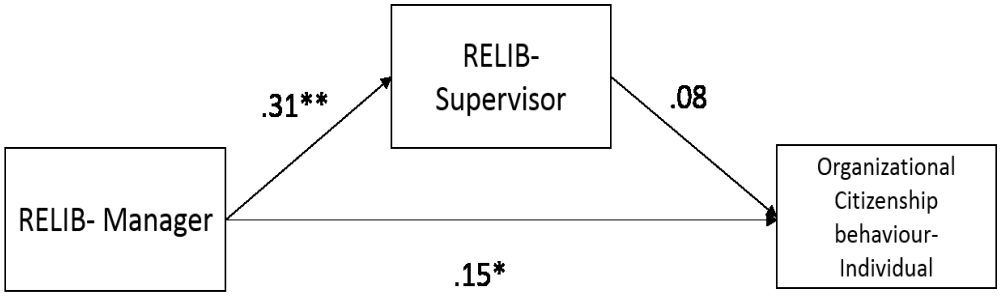
3a



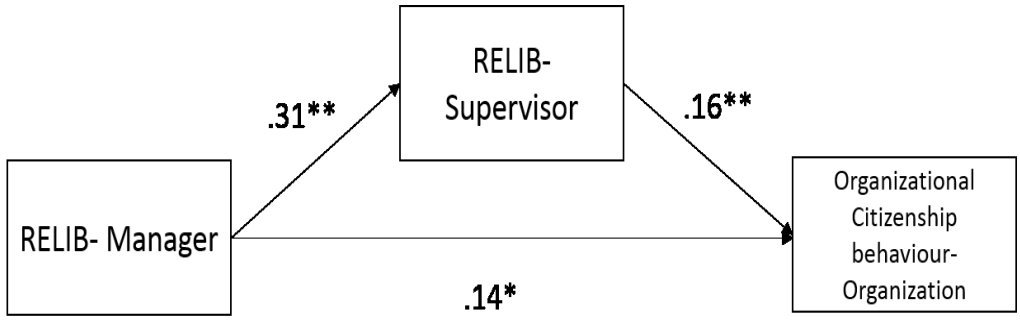
3b



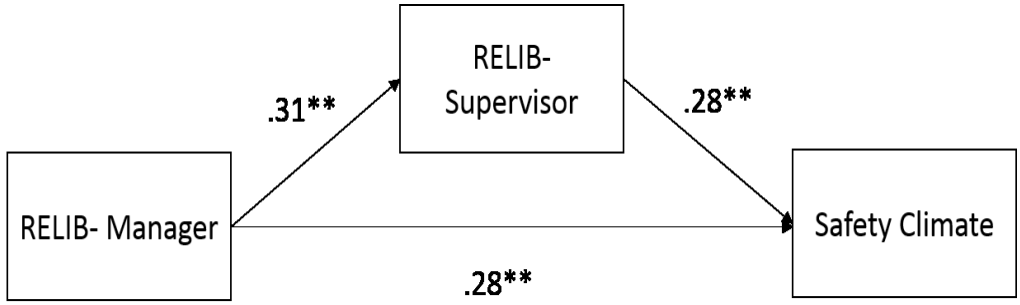
3c



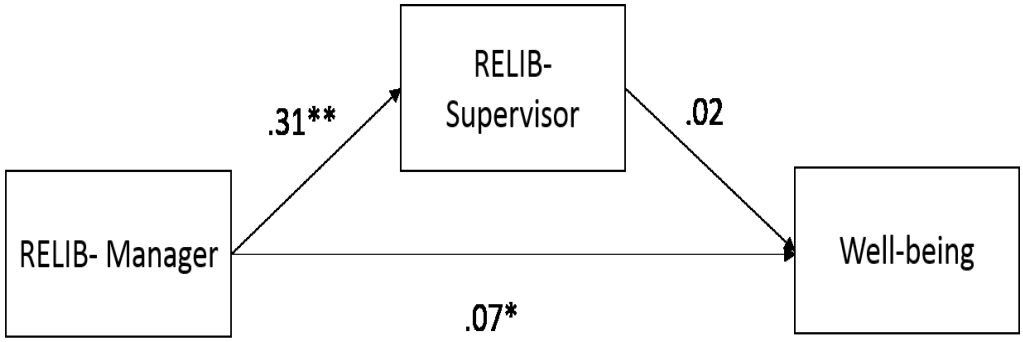
3d


RELIB- Supervisor
.31**
.16**
RELIB- Manager
Organizational Citizenship behaviour- Organization
.14*

3e


RELIB- Supervisor
.31**
.28**
RELIB- Manager
Safety Climate
.28**

3f


RELIB- Supervisor
.31**
.02
RELIB- Manager
Well-being
.07*

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APPENDIX A

Interview Protocol- Employees

Thank you very much for taking the time to meet with me. As you may be aware, what I am interested in discussing with you are your experiences with being excluded in the workplace. This is a type of counterproductive workplace behaviour that is only just starting to get the attention that it deserves. As such, I want to get a greater understanding about how it presents itself in different organizations and I would really appreciate any insight you could provide me. If at any time you feel uncomfortable with the questions, feel free just to say pass and I will move on. Also, if you feel like you no longer would like to continue with the interview, we can stop at any time. Finally, everything you say will be kept confidential. This means that your name will never be attached to your responses. Also, all firms and all people mentioned during the course of the interview will be given new names. If that is alright with you, why don't we begin?

Job Prompts

Can you tell me a little bit about your job and what your responsibilities are with the organization?
What about the amount of contact you have with your co-workers? Supervisor?
In your work, who do you report to directly? Is it the same person or did it vary on the shift/day?
What kind of reputation does the company that employs you have regarding the treating of its employees?

Exclusion & Type

Can you give me an example of an instance where you felt left out or excluded by any employed member your workplace? This can include situations both in and out of the work setting.

- Who initiated this type of behaviour?
- Were others involved?
- Was this a single situation or did it happen consistently over time?
- Are you still working at the current employer?
- **If no:** Can you tell me about when your decision to leave?
- **If yes:** Are you currently experiencing similar behaviours?

Does your company have any specific rules or policies in place that explicitly cover exclusion in the workplace?
How were you made aware that the intention of their behaviour was to exclude you?
Were you made aware about why this was happening?

- Do you have any idea as to the motive behind this behaviour?

Were their instances where the exclusionary individual or individuals were forced to interact with you?
Was your experience with exclusion a feeling of physical isolation, social isolation or both?

Have you seen similar things happen to other coworkers?

Presence/Absence of legitimate authority during exclusionary period:

Can you tell me a little bit about the relationship that you have with your supervisor during this period?
In the instances where you felt excluded in the workplace, do you believe that your supervisor was aware of it?
If yes: was any action taken?
If no: do you have any explanation for them not being able to discern this?
How consistent is your supervisor's behaviour during this instance with your past experience with him/her?

Methods of Coping:

Once you started to have these feelings, in what ways did you try to deal with your situation?
Did you try to talk to somebody about this in the workplace or at home?
What kind of a role did your friends play in your ability to cope or manage the situation? Other coworkers?

Effect on Individual:

Can you tell me about how this instance of exclusion made you feel?
Draw out question until commitment, satisfaction and well-being are discussed

Was your personal life affected in any way? Your academic life? In what ways?

Personal:

How long have you worked at your place of employment?
How many hours do you work per week?
Are you currently in a serious relationship?
Do you still live with members of your family?
If not, do you have a roommate?
Indicate Gender: M F

APPENDIX B

Major Codes and Illustrative Quotes from Study 1

Supervisor and Manager Profile

Initiator

Yes, there is a ringleader, I was going to say she is a bit of a bully but she is the big bully on our team and we have had problems for the last 3 years since she has come and for some reason I have been a target. I think probably because I have been sick and a bully usually picks on someone who is sick or something like that. So she is the ringleader and there are a couple of other people who are intimidated by her so they go along with everything.

Active (just getting involved in the leader behaviour)

My supervisor (laugh) was always around but she wasn't really she was a very narcissistic negative person and it was just something that basically you walked in on the first day and they say that they hired you for all of these reasons now we are going to tell you all of the reasons why you can't know anything.

Passive (not getting involved in the workgroup)

I don't know, maybe he did, maybe he talked to them but I suppose the Mexican lady that I used to talk to, she had the same problems and she told me that she talked to the previous manager several times and nothing changed.

Aware

My (supervisor) was the initiator; she was the second in command. It's very complicated because she was the director of the camp but she couldn't tell me what to do.

Unaware

No, she (the manager) wouldn't have a clue I don't think, I never spoke to her.

Positively Intentioned

The manager told me the next time that you go somewhere have more encouragement; you should like your job more than this, that's what he told me.

Negatively Intentioned

One day I was even super sick and I called in but the boss said he didn't care and that I had to come to work. Because he knew that if I didn't come in he would have to do the work.

Coping Methods

Anti-Social

At lunchtime I didn't want to eat with everyone else but if I was eating at my office desk I was still doing work so I never really got to eat there and I would work until 10 at night and go home.

Pro-Social

I tried so hard to communication with him, I was trying to share some things about myself and make it a little friendlier.

Confronting
I have been trying to deal with the situation but working through different alternative, by talking to their people and talking to my boss. I'm trying to figure out a different way of doing it but it's been two years not and I'm tired of it.

Social Support
Yeah, like one of the volunteers I made really good friends with them and also during the weekends I would go home and see my boyfriend and he was my point of support and it would be really, really helpful.

Crying
I had a breakdown, I was crying all the time

Type of Ostracism
Physical
They would invite people to a 5-7 and all of a sudden you are not invited or you would have like I mentioned we had retreats, if you had a retreat, nobody wants to be in your room or paired with you.

Social
It was just this feeling of alienation, not knowing what to do because you have certain resources and you use them but there is a point where you can't do anything, you feel powerless right.

Foreign Language
Sometimes when we do something wrong they would scold us but only in French and then he would say "do you understand or do I need to repeat it in English?" He would really single me out in front of other people and emphasize the fact that I was English and that maybe I could not understand his French- when I could.

Information
It was so consistent, I mean she didn't swear at me, she wasn't outwardly angry, it was just like being totally ignored and totally unsupported and totally never given the right information and all that stuff.

Observed
Yes, the three of us who felt ourselves to be ostracized by the manager, the three of us who were doing our work and we often talked about it. One of them still calls me.

Personal Cost
Health
I thought that I was going crazy myself, I thought that I was almost imagining it. I can't believe it I was like shell-shocked that this would happen.

Stress
That was usually around the time of a breakdown when I couldn't handle it anymore.

Negative Mood
I became very angry and bitter.

Depressed-Drained
Desperate, nothing you felt that you were desperate. Once I told my husband 'am I a weak person, do I have a lack of energy?' and he said are you crazy? No I think that when I am working, I have a lack of energy, maybe I have to go and see the doctor.

Helpless
Oh god, just the isolation part you know, I could have other nurses that would agree but you know the outcome would have been entirely different but I mean you are just so along and you just felt mentally abused yourself and you are so helpless.

Organizational Cost
Job Satisfaction
Yes, it makes it quite difficult and then I guess other people who don't like their jobs are just people who have bad managers.

Commitment
No I don't think it ever affected it, I was just so dedicated and loved the work and loved my patients so much that no. That never did but I think that if I had stayed another year it would have.

Turnover
I ended up quitting two years later because by then he was taking all of my day shifts away because he didn't want me around because I didn't like what was going on and I think he felt threatened that I was going to do something because he had so much power, he did all of our time sheets so he started taking day shifts away from me and putting me on nights.

APPENDIX C

Interview Protocol- Managers

Thank you for your willingness to take part in this discussion on leadership. At the moment, I am in the process of conducting research for my dissertation which focuses about a particular leadership role—that of the social intervener. More specifically, I am interested in how managers go about intervening in the social aspect of work and how they view their role when it comes to this kind of behaviour.
My previous research has examined how employees react to negative social disturbances ranging from bullying to outright rejection. These situations show lasting negative effects on the target beyond their colleagues. As such, I am interested in whether you have seen situations similar to this in your workplace and how one could go about reducing its occurrence.

- Can you tell me a little bit about your job and what your responsibilities are with the organization? How many are under your supervision?
- Can you give me an example of a situation where you have seen one or more of your employees being unjustly treated at work? (What I mean by this could include being bullied, ostracized or generally made to feel unwelcome).
    - What was your relationship with the above mentioned employee?
    - What types of behaviours did it entail?
    - Who initiated this behaviour?
    - Were others involved?
    - Was this a single situation or did it happen over time?
    - Had you done nothing, what do you think the outcome would have been?
        - What were the results of the intervention
        - How did the victim(s) view your intervention?
        - How did the perpetrator(s) view your intervention?
- <u>How do you go about deciding when/if to intervene?</u>
- How was your choice of intervention viewed by your superiors?
- Can victims themselves take any steps to improve their situation?
- Some managers may have chosen to act differently than you did, why do you think this might be the case?
    - What other actions would have been possible in this case?
    - Looking back, would they have been more or less effective?
- Are there other factors that future managers need to be aware of prior to making a decision to intervene?
- What are steps that managers can take to reduce the occurrence of these social disturbances within the workplace?

APPENDIX D

Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour Scale Used in Study 3

My Supervisor.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Active					
Takes charge of resolving issues between coworkers	1	2	3	4	5
Is proactive in ensuring that the group works together	1	2	3	4	5
Engages group members to come up with mutually beneficial solutions	1	2	3	4	5
Enthusiastically participates in team-building activities	1	2	3	4	5
Passive					
Avoids addressing important interpersonal problems with workgroup members	1	2	3	4	5
Chooses to avoid making decisions that would resolve conflict among workgroup members	1	2	3	4	5
Fails to defend subordinates from attacks by others	1	2	3	4	5
Has a laissez-faire attitude towards teamwork	1	2	3	4	5
Unaware					
Does not notice any change in the workgroup's social climate	1	2	3	4	5
Cannot tell when something in my workgroup is going wrong	1	2	3	4	5
Is too preoccupied to notice how team members get along	1	2	3	4	5
Takes no notice of any arguments in my workgroup	1	2	3	4	5
Pays no attention to interpersonal issues that arise in my workgroup	1	2	3	4	5
Aware					
Identifies when things are going wrong within my workgroup	1	2	3	4	5
Recognizes when there is conflict in my workgroup	1	2	3	4	5
Is aware of the interpersonal landscape of my workgroup	1	2	3	4	5
Is mindful of workgroup interrelationships	1	2	3	4	5

Positive

Displays genuine interest in ensuring that my group works well together	1	2	3	4	5
Wants the best for all group members	1	2	3	4	5
Makes group members feel included	1	2	3	4	5
Shows true concern for all members of my workgroup	1	2	3	4	5
Cares about developing a harmonious work environment	1	2	3	4	5

Negative

Creates conflict among members of my workgroup	1	2	3	4	5
Mocks team members as a display of humor	1	2	3	4	5
Criticizes subordinates in front of others	1	2	3	4	5
Singles out group members in a detrimental way	1	2	3	4	5
Personally attacks workgroup members in front of others	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

List of Scale Items

Extent of Computer Use- (Medcof, 1996)
On a typical working day, how many hours do you spend seated at and using the computer?
On a typical working day, how many hours do you spend at work?
On a typical working day, what percentage of your work time do you spend seated at and using the computer?
How would you describe the degree to which you use the computer to carry out your job functions?

Managerial Practice Survey- (Yukl and Lepsinger, 1990)
Short-term Planning
1. Develops short-term plans for accomplishing the work of the unit.
2. Identifies the sequence of action steps needed to accomplish a task or project.
3. Schedules work activities to avoid delays, duplication of effort, and wasted resources.
4. Determines in advance what resources are needed to carry out a task or project.

Monitoring the External Environment
1. Analyzes external events and trends to identify threats and opportunities.
2. Keeps informed about the activities and products of competitors.
3. Keeps informed about new developments in technology that may have implications for improving the unit's products, services, or processes.
4. Studies what is being done in other organizations to get new ideas for improving the unit.

Leader-Member Exchange- (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995)
1. Do you know where you stand with your leader? Do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?
2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?
3. How well does your leader recognize your potential?
4. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/ her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his/ her power to help you solve problems in your work?
5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out," at his/ her expense?
6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/ her decision if he/she were not present to do so?
7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?

Emotional Intelligence- (Wong and Law, 2002)
Self-emotion appraisal (SEA)
1. My leader has a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.

2. My leader has good understanding of my own emotions.
3. My leader really understands what I feel.
4. My leader always knows whether or not I am happy.

Others' emotion appraisal (OEA)
5. My leader always knows (his/her) employees' emotions from their behavior.
6. My leader a good observer of others' emotions.
7. My leader is sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
8. My leader has a good understanding of the emotions of people around (him/her).

Use of emotion (UOE)
9. My leader always set goals for (himself/herself) and then tries their best to achieve them.
10. My leader always tells others that they are competent.
11. My leader is a self-motivated person.
12. My leader would always encourage others to try their best.

Regulation of emotion (ROE)
13. My leader is able to control their temper and handle difficulties rationally.
14. My leader is quite capable of controlling their emotions.
15. My leader can always calm down quickly when (he/she) gets very angry.
16. My leader has good control of (his/her) emotions.

Job Satisfaction- (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, &Klesh, 1983)
1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job
2. In general, I don't like my job.
3. In general, I like working here.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (Lee and Allen, 2002)
OCB- Individual Items
1. Help others who have been absent.
2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the workgroup.
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
6. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.
7. Assist others with their duties.
8. Share personal property with others to help their work.

OCB- Organization Items
1. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
2. Keep up with developments in the organization.
3. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
4. Show pride when representing the organization in public.
5. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.

6. Express loyalty toward the organization.
7. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.
8. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

General Health Questionnaire (Goldberg, 1972; Mullarkey, Wall, Warr, Clegg, & Stride,
1999).

1. Able to concentrate.
2. Lost sleep over worry.
3. Play useful part in things
4. Capable of making decisions.
5. Constantly under strain.
6. Could not overcome difficulties.
7. Enjoy day-to-day activities.
8. Face up to problems.
9. Unhappy and depressed.
10. Loss of confidence in self.
11. Thinking of self as worthless.
12. Reasonably happy

Workplace Ostracism- (Ferris, Brown, Berry & Lian, 2008)

1. Others ignored you at work.
2. Others left the area when you entered.
3. Your greetings have gone unanswered at work.
4. You involuntarily sat alone in a crowded lunchroom at work.
5. Others avoided you at work.
6. You noticed others would not look at you at work.
7. Others at work shut you out of the conversation.
8. Others refused to talk to you at work.
9. Others at work treated you as if you weren't there.
10. Others at work did not invite you or ask you if you wanted anything when they went out for a coffee break.

STUDY 5 Measures

Task performance- (Peterson et al., 2011)

1. Meets his or her performance expectations
2. Performs the tasks assigned to him or her
3. Fulfills the responsibilities stipulated by management.

Citizenship Performance- (Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000)

1. Volunteers for things that are not required
2. Helps others who have heavy workloads
3. Does not take unnecessary time off from work

APPENDIX F

Substantively Valid Relational Leadership Interventionary Behaviour Items

My direct supervisor...	
Proactive Behaviour	
	1. Is proactive in ensuring that the group works together
	2. Enthusiastically participates in team-building activities
	3. Takes charge of resolving issues between coworkers
Social-Awareness Behaviour	
	1. Identifies when things are going wrong within my workgroup
	2. Is aware of the interpersonal landscape of my workgroup
	3. Recognizes when there is conflict in my workgroup
Positively Intentioned Behaviour	
	1. Makes group members feel included
	2. Cares about developing a harmonious work environment
	3. Displays genuine interest in ensuring that my group works well together

Note: This scale asked participants to estimate the extent to which you have experienced the following behaviours over the past 6 months and was measured using a 7-point scale: (1= "*Strongly Disagree*"; 7= "*Strongly Agree*").

APPENDIX G

UNIVERSITÉ Concordia UNIVERSITY

CERTIFICATION OF ETHICAL ACCEPTABILITY FOR RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

Name of Applicant:	John Fiset
Department:	Management
Agency:	N/A
Title of Project:	The Good Shepherd; The Development and validation of the Relational leader Interventionary behaviour Scale (RELIB)
Certification Number:	30000795

Valid From: April 4, 2013 to: April 4, 2014

The members of the University Human Research Ethics Committee have examined the application for a grant to support the above-named project, and consider the experimental procedures, as outlined by the applicant, to be acceptable on ethical grounds for research involving human subjects.

Dr. James Pfaus, Chair, University Human Research Ethics Committee